THE BRIGHT AND DARK SIDES OF EMPOWERMENT: LINKING PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND JOB STRESSORS TO PROACTIVE AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS

BY

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ABSTRACT

Recently, organizational scholars have stressed the importance of employee proactivity in today's dynamic and uncertain work environment. As such, research has investigated employee proactivity in two similar ways but disconnected ways. Whereas some research focuses on the psychological conditions that give rise to employee proactivity, other research investigates the behavioral manifestations of proactivity. This dissertation integrates the behavioral and psychological approaches to proactivity with a sample of 423 non-profit employees. I first developed a generic scale to represent personal, interpersonal, and organizational dimensions of proactive work behavior. Results indicate that the three proposed beneficiary dimensions of proactive work behavior are distinct from one another, yet together identify a higher-order category of proactive work behavior. Additional findings indicate that proactive work behaviors are empirically distinguishable from task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. Next, I develop a theoretical model that links psychological empowerment and job stressors to proactive and counterproductive work behaviors. These results indicate that challenge (hindrance) stressors are positively (negatively) associated with psychological empowerment. Additional findings revealed a positive association between psychological empowerment and proactive work behaviors, as well as interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors. Finally, the results suggest that psychological empowerment mediates the relationships between stressors and proactive work behaviors, but not counterproductive work behaviors.

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Table of Contents

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose and Contribution

Empowerment has been discussed recently by numerous scholars in the field of organizational behavior and management with respect to its potential positive impacts on individual, group, and organizational outcomes (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011; Wang & Lee, 2009; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). A significant body of research on empowerment has accumulated over the past two decades providing scholars and practitioners a wealth of findings that point to the advantages of empowered employees. In addition to its growing popularity in management research, empowerment is also gaining popularity in management practice. For instance, empowerment initiatives have become "commonplace" within organizations (Ford & Fottler, 1995: p. 21), and as of 2001, more than 70% of Fortune 1000 organizations have adopted some form of empowerment initiative (Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001). In large part, this increased attention to the adoption of empowerment initiatives can be traced back to the changing nature of work itself. More than ever before, organizations require their employees to perform effectively in the face of uncertainty, and the best organizations accomplish this by not controlling employees, but empowering them (O'Toole & Lawler, 2006).

The growth of empowerment in management practice underscores the need for continuing research aimed at understanding both the concept and its implications. To date, research on empowerment has commenced along two complementary perspectives (Liden & Arad, 1996). First, the relational approach, or *social-structural empowerment*, views empowerment as a top-down process whereby management policies and practices are put in place to delegate power and decision-making authority throughout the organizational hierarchy.

This perspective on empowerment builds on the tenets of job design and job characteristics research (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and is primarily concerned with the organizational conditions where power, decision making and control over resources are dispersed throughout the organizational hierarchy (Kanter, 1977). As such, this perspective suggests that to empower employees job should be designed to promote autonomy in decision-making and to provide employees with meaningful tasks that encourage development. Second, the motivational approach, or *psychological empowerment*, views empowerment as a bottom-up process driven by an individual's intrinsic motivation towards his or her work role. This perspective is rooted in Bandura's (1977, 1982, 1997) work on self-efficacy and is less concerned with how authority and responsibility are dispersed throughout the organizational hierarchy, and more concerned about how employee perceptions and cognitions contribute to a sense of control over their work (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Although these two perspectives are divergent in their views of the empowerment process, they are convergent in their view that to be successful in the contemporary business environment, organizations must remove feelings of alienation and powerlessness and instead focus on factors (i.e., structures or perceptions) that enable and energize employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Both conceptualizations of empowerment have generated a great deal of complementary and distinct research (Maynard et al., 2012), and a number of studies have indicated that structural empowerment is a necessary, but insufficient antecedent to psychological empowerment (e.g., Mathieu, Gilson, & Ruddy, 2006; Spreitzer, 1996).

While researchers have made great strides in understanding the antecedents and consequences of both perspectives (see Spreitzer, 2008 for a review), as well as how relational empowerment can enable psychological empowerment (e.g., Robbins, Crino, & Fredendall, 2002; Spreitzer, 1996), there has been little research aimed at understanding what specifically constitutes empowered behaviors, or understanding the association between the conditions that enable empowerment and the behavioral manifestations of empowered employees (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Instead, much of the empowerment literature articulates its association with behaviors and attitudes that do not necessarily reflect an active concentration of energy upon work tasks, flexibility in decision-making, or resiliency in the face of obstacles as posited by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). For instance, in a recent review of the empowerment literature, Maynard and colleagues (2012) find that job satisfaction and in-role performance are the two most commonly studies outcomes of psychological empowerment. Although these outcomes are important to organizational research (Staw, 1984), they do not focus on the type of active involvement that should be unique outcomes of psychological empowerment.

Interest in empowerment has its origins in the changing nature of work itself. As organizations increasingly moved away from production economies toward knowledge economies, researchers shifted away from focusing on jobs and their fixed tasks toward a broader view of work behaviors in dynamic and uncertain organizational contexts (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991), or a shift from patriarchal management to empowered management (Block, 1987). Under traditional models of work performance, jobs could be adequately specified to include all behaviors that contributed to organizational goal attainment (Murphy & Jackson, 1999), and performance could be evaluated in terms of the degree to which employee's carried out those specified behaviors (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). These traditional

models of work performance, however, did not account for the full range of behaviors necessary to contribute to organizational effectiveness in the contemporary environment (Campbell et al., 1993; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991; Murphy & Jackson, 1999).

With the changing nature of work in mind, practitioners and organizational scholars recognized the growing importance of having empowered employees, who engage in a broader set of job responsibilities including not only in-role performance, but citizenship performance (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), adaptive performance (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000), and proactive performance (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008). As a consequence, employees are no longer viewed solely as reactive recipients of job tasks, but proactive participants in defining their job roles and responsibilities to engage in behaviors that foster creativity, innovation, and change (Campbell et al., 1993; Crant, 2000; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004). In short, as work becomes more decentralized and dynamic, encouraging employees to engage in proactive behaviors and personal initiative becomes an even more critical determinant of organizational success and could be instrumental in helping firms create a competitive advantage (Crant, 2000).

From this perspective organizational scholars have approached employee proactivity in two similar, but disconnected ways. First, some scholars have focused on the psychological conditions that encourage employees to engage in a broader set of work responsibilities. Much of this research has been commenced under the label of psychological empowerment, which refers to a set of psychological states that reflect an active, rather than passive orientation toward one's work role (Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). According to the psychological perspective, individuals are likely to feel empowered when job tasks are perceived as promoting goal achievement, learning and development; and disempowered when job tasks are perceived to

hinder progress toward goal attainment or task accomplishment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Thus, the way in which individuals perceive the demands of their job (i.e., stressors) translates into different perceptions of empowerment. When stressors are viewed as challenging (challenge stressors), individuals perceive a sense of empowerment and mastery over their work environment. On the other hand, when stressors are viewed as hindering (hindrance stressors), individuals the experience of psychological empowerment will be diminished.

The resultant behaviors of psychologically empowered employees should be characterized by a concentration of energy upon the task, activity (as opposed to passivity), flexibility in controlling their own task accomplishments, initiation of new tasks as problem or opportunities arise, and resiliency to obstacles which sustains motivation in the face of ambiguity or obstacles (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowered behaviors, then, refer to a "willingness to take responsibility for effective decision-making across those decisions that must be made and those that are discretionary and require some degree of personal initiative" (Robbins et al., 2002: p. 435). Yet little of the empirical literature examining the consequences of psychological empowerment reflects this definition of empowered behaviors. Instead, much of the research on psychological empowerment articulates is positive associations with affective states (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment) or behaviors (e.g., in-role performance and turnover intentions), which require little proactivity in work roles. Conversely, after reviewing the empowerment literature Maynard and colleagues (2012) report that proactive outcomes such as creativity and innovation have not been adequately explored. To date, there has been little conceptual or empirical research that attempts to explicate the role of psychological empowerment in the promotion of these proactive behaviors that require personal responsibility and initiative. In short, the psychological perspective has made great strides in understanding the

environmental and personal conditions that foster a sense of proactivity, yet made little progress in understanding how these perceptions of empowerment are converted into empowered behaviors.

Second, some scholars have focused on the ways in which employees express proactive behaviors at work, including voice (Hirschman, 1970), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), pro-social rule breaking (Morrison, 2006), job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), personal initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001), and proactive creativity (Unsworth, 2001), just to name a few. Although conceptually related each of these literatures on specific forms of proactive behaviors have evolved largely independently from each other. As a result the study of general proactive work behaviors has not been systematic or integrated, and little is known about the general dynamics that are common across multiple proactive work behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008). More recently, however, researchers have begun to integrate these interconnected literatures, collapsing many of these individual forms of proactive behavior under a conceptual whole. Here, proactive work behaviors refer to self-initiated, anticipatory actions that aim to change and improve the situation or oneself (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). From the behavioral perspective, there is growing consensus that commonality exists among many of these individual forms of proactive behavior (e.g., Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Parker & Collins, 2010); however there has been little work to understand either how proactive work behaviors relate to other forms of behavior (e.g., in-role behavior, citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior) or the psychological conditions that foster the general propensity to behave proactively in ones work role. Moreover, the behavioral approach to proactivity has been largely grown in isolation from the psychological approach to proactivity (see Parker et al., 2006 for a noteable exception) and

further research is necessary to integrate these two complementary perspectives on employee proactivity.

In summary, the behavioral approach has largely neglected the psychological conditions that give rise to the expression of proactive work behaviors, and the psychological perspective has largely neglected the proactive behaviors that likely result from being an active participant in shaping and regulating work behaviors. The objective of this dissertation, then, is to address this gap in the literature and contribute to a greater understanding of how proactive work behaviors are related to each other, how they are different from other forms of work behavior, and to understand how psychological conditions contribute to which forms of behavior individuals are likely to engage in.

To accomplish this objective, I first contribute to ongoing efforts to develop and verify a multidimensional representation of proactive work behaviors based on whether the intended beneficiary is oneself, coworkers, or the organization in general. Second, little is known about how proactive work behaviors are similar to or different from other workplace behaviors, therefore I explore the relationships between proactive work behaviors and in-role behavior, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior in order to determine whether proactive work behaviors are distinct from other, previously established, work behaviors. Third, I examine the role psychological empowerment plays in encouraging and discouraging these different forms of work behavior. Fourth, using a challenge-hindrance stressor framework, I argue that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between workplace stressors and workplace behaviors. Specifically, the following research questions are proposed, which are presented graphically in Figures 1 and 2.

RQ#1 – Is it meaningful to differentiate different dimensions of proactive work behaviors based on the intended beneficiary (i.e., personal, interpersonal, and organizational) as opposed to content (i.e., taking charge, voice, personal initiative, innovation)?

RQ#2 – Are proactive work behaviors an empirically unique facet of behavior and how do they relate to other forms of workplace behaviors (i.e., in-role behaviors, citizenship behaviors, counterproductive behaviors)?

RQ#3 – What role does psychological empowerment play in the decision to engage in proactive and counterproductive work behaviors?

RQ#4 –How do job stressors (challenge and hindrance) encourage or diminish perceptions of psychological empowerment?

RQ#5 – Does psychological empowerment explain the relationship between stressors and proactive and counterproductive work behaviors?

Helping to provide answers to these questions will contribute to existing scholarship in a number of ways. First, this research will contribute to the emerging literature on proactive work behaviors. This research will contribute to this existing research by developing the theoretical argument that proactive work behaviors can be meaningfully categorized based on the intended beneficiary of the behavior: personal (self), interpersonal, and organizational. This typology provides the benefit of allowing research to understand the similarities and differences between proactive work behavior and other forms of behavior that are often categorized into personal (in-role performance), interpersonal (interpersonal citizenship behaviors and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors), and organizational (organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational counterproductive work behaviors) dimensions. Previous multidimensional

representations of proactive work behavior have relied on content dimensions (e.g., taking charge, voice, individual innovation), making it difficult to compare proactive work behaviors with other measures of workplace behavior that are based on beneficiary (e.g., OCBO, OCBI, CWBO, CWBI).

Second, since research on proactive work behaviors is still in its early stages, little is known about how these behaviors are related to other work-relevant behaviors such as in-role behaviors, citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors. In fact, exactly where proactive work behaviors fit in with respect to others has been subject to significant debate. Some have treated proactive work behavior exclusively as an extra-role behavior (Parker et al., 2006; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean-Parks, 1995), arguing that since proactive behaviors require individuals to engage in agentic behavior that cannot be formalized into job descriptions, they are by necessity and by definition extra-role behaviors (e.g., O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Others have argued that proactive work behavior can be executed in either in-role or extra-role responsibilities. For example, employees can execute in-role tasks in a proactive manner by completing them ahead of time or by identifying improved procedures for completing their task assignments (Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001). Moreover, the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors can often be unclear, because behaviors can be considered either extra-role or in-role depending upon how they are constructed by employees, supervisors, and colleagues (Morrison, 1994). An additional difficulty in ascribing in-role or extra-role designation to proactive work behaviors is that proactive employees are more likely to define their role more broadly (Morrison, 1994; Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997), making it difficult to differentiate whether the behavior was perceived as doing something extra or simply doing their job well. Finally, since proactive work behaviors require individuals to alter or

transcend their formal work tasks, it is possible that these behaviors can be viewed as counterproductive by management or colleagues. For example, Dahling et al (2012) found that pro-social rule breaking was highly and positively correlated with counterproductive work behaviors. In sum, little is known about how proactive work behaviors relate to each other let alone to other forms of workplace behavior, this research will contribute to the field's growing understanding of how proactive work behaviors are similar to and unique from citizenship, task, and counterproductive behaviors.

In order to be useful, it is imperative that proactive work behaviors be conceptually and empirically unique from other forms of workplace behavior, not simply new wine in old bottles. Research on proactive work performance is still in its infancy and little is known about what is unique to these behaviors. In particular, there has been no research, to my knowledge, that establishes proactive work behaviors as a form of behavior that is different from in-role behavior, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior. The current research situates proactive work behaviors with respect to the intended beneficiary of the behavior, placing it on common conceptual ground with citizenship behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. Importantly, this feature makes direct comparison among the different forms of work behavior possible. In the end, this research seeks to take this initial first step to understand what is unique about proactive work behaviors by establishing its discriminant validity from task, citizenship, and counterproductive behaviors.

Third, research on proactivity at work has typically focused on either proactive behavior or proactive motivation, and there has been little effort to merge these perspectives into an integrated model of proactivity. This research synthesizes the psychological and behavioral perspectives by arguing that psychological empowerment serves as powerful motivation to

engage in proactive work behavior. To date, much of the general proactive behavior literature has focused on identifying commonality among different forms of proactive behavior and given little consideration to the psychological conditions that promote these behaviors. On the other hand, much of the literature on psychological empowerment has focused on its associations with attitudes and behaviors that are not generally considered to be proactive (e.g., affective commitment, job satisfaction, in-role performance). The present research draws an explicit connection between proactive behaviors and the proactive psychological conditions that motivate them.

Fourth, this research contributes to the empowerment literature by evaluating how stressors influence perceptions of psychological empowerment. Based on previous research, I develop a theoretical argument that challenge stressors encourage psychological empowerment, whereas hindrance stressors inhibit feelings of empowerment. This research represents an important contribution to the literature on psychological empowerment because since its inception, scholars have argued that individuals will likely be empowered when jobs provide opportunities for growth and development, and disempowered when they involve role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload (i.e., hindering) (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). However, to date, this proposition has yet to be formally tested. Understanding the association between stressors and empowerment is important because it allows for insights into the task environment that either encourages empowerment or discourages it. Through an increased understanding of the role stressors play in the empowerment process, it becomes possible for mangers to assuage feelings of powerlessness and foster perceptions of empowerment.

In summary, this project offers a number of important contributions to existing scholarship: an increased understanding of proactive behaviors and their association with other

forms of workplace behaviors, the role psychological empowerment plays in the promotion or prevention of both proactive and counterproductive work behaviors, and how workplace stressors influence psychological empowerment, ultimately leading to different sets of behaviors. Each of these contributions will be discussed in detail below; however prior to examining these relationships, I first place this dissertation in context by reviewing the literature on psychological empowerment.

1.2 Psychological Empowerment

Although the use of the term empowerment in the management literature is about 20 years old, the concept of employee involvement and participation can be traced back over 60 years to the work of Lewin (1947). More recently, the term psychological empowerment has been used to describe a motivational concept that describes "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal both by formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; p. 474). As originally conceived, the empowerment process is one of removing the sense of powerlessness among organizational members and instead focusing on enhancing individual efficacy beliefs. By building a sense of self-efficacy, organizational members also build their expectancy beliefs that their efforts will produce the desired outcome (Bandura, 1986) which determines how much effort individuals will devote toward in-role performance and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1977). While viewing psychological empowerment as akin to the unidimensional construct of self-efficacy was an important first step in theory building, subsequent reserach expanded on this perspective by suggesting a multidimensional perspective of psychological empowerment.

Building on the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) operationalized psychological empowerment in terms of intrinsic task motivation where individuals positively value the experience of performing a particular task (task assessments) or culmination of tasks (global assessments). After reviewing the literatures on motivation, job design, and leadership, they argued that self-efficacy was a necessary but not sufficient cognition necessary for empowerment. Instead they argued that psychological empowerment required four cognitive components of intrinsic motivation: competence, impact, meaningfulness, and choice. *Competence* refers to assessments of the degree to which a person can perform tasks successfully, and is analogous to self-efficacy. *Impact* refers to the degree to which a person views their behavior as "making a difference" in terms of accomplishing a task. *Meaningfulness* involves the sense of intrinsic worth derived from task accomplishment or progress towards task accomplishment. *Choice* involves causal responsibility for one's own actions, and represents perceptions that their behavior is self-determined. Together, these four cognitions have an additive effect on in-role performance and can have self-fulfilling qualities, where high cognitions lead to self-enhancing cycles that strengthen assessments, and low cognitions lead to self-deprecating cycles that further weaken assessments (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Furthermore, they argued that these four dimensions specify a "nearly complete or sufficient set of task assessments" or cognitions for understanding psychological empowerment (p. 667). In the end, their conceptual model provided a multidimensional framework for evaluating empowerment based upon four key cognitions, which are presumed to be proximal determinants of intrinsic task motivation; however their conceptual model lacked empirical verification.

Support for Thomas & Velthouse's (1990) multidimensional conceptualization of psychological empowerment came from Spreitzer (1995), who drew upon the interdisciplinary

literature on empowerment, as well as the literatures on psychology, sociology, social work, and education to develop an empirical theoretically-driven measure for psychological empowerment. Overall she found strong support that the four dimensions contribute to a sense of psychological empowerment. However, based on her results, she further refined the dimensions to include meaning (synonymous with meaningfulness), competence, self-determination (synonymous with choice or autonomy), and impact, and defined them as follows. *Meaning* represents the value or purpose of a work goal, judged in relation to an individual's own standards or ideals (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). An individual's cognitive appraisal of meaning involves the relative fit between the requirements of a work role and an individual's values, beliefs, and behaviors (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). *Competence* represents self-efficacy beliefs, or an individual's belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987), and is analogous to effort-performance expectancy, personal mastery, or agency beliefs (Bandura, 1989). *Self-determination* refers to a sense of autonomy or choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Cognitive appraisals of self-determination involve the autonomous choice, such as methods, pace, and effort, in initiation and continuation of work behaviors (Bell & Staw, 1989; Spector, 1986). *Impact* reflects the degree to which an individual perceives that they can affect strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989). Together, Spreitzer (1995) argued that these four dimensions represent a set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel a sense of personal control in relation to their work. Furthermore, she argued that these four cognitions represent an active, rather than passive, orientation toward a work role, meaning that individuals are able to shape, change, and augment both their work role and their environmental context.

Having a theoretically-driven, and empirically validated multidimensional measure of psychological empowerment, organizational scholars commenced a research program to understand the relationships among the dimensions, the multidimensional nature or the construct itself, as well as the determinants, and consequences of both the construct and its dimensions. Furthermore, Spreitzer's (1995) four dimensional measure of psychological empowerment has been subject to rigorous empirical investigation. Overall, the consistency of the four dimensional factor structure is impressive given that convergent and discriminant validity have been established in samples across international boundaries (Carless, 2004; Ergeneli, Ari, & Selin, 2007), organizations (Gagné, Senécal, & Koestner, 1997; Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999), and work contexts (Kraimer et al., 1999; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996). Most recently, Seibert and colleagues (2011) performed a second-order confirmatory factor analysis and found strong support for the second-order structure of the empowerment dimensions. Together, these provide strong evidence that across the psychological empowerment literature, there is little unique variance explained by the sub-dimensions as compared to the composite measure.

1.2.1 Antecedents of Psychological Empowerment

In terms of antecedents, most research points to the importance of an empowering environment, although there is some research to suggest that personality factors such as self-esteem, education level have some influence on perceptions of psychological empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011; Spreitzer, 1995). For instance, results from a recent meta-analysis indicate that contextual factors account for approximately three times more variance in psychological empowerment than individual factors (Seibert et al., 2011). Although strong situations appear to be the most salient driver of psychological empowerment, Seibert and colleagues (2011) found

meta-analytic evidence that individual characteristics such as positive self-evaluation traits (i.e., locus of control, self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, and emotional stability), age, tenure, and job level are positively associated with psychological empowerment.

While the literature on individual differences as determinants of psychological empowerment has received only moderate support, there is stronger evidence that certain types of environmental conditions encourage psychological empowerment. First, structural empowerment has been positioned as one of the most salient drivers of psychological empowerment. This argument is premised on the notion that when management transfers responsibility and autonomy to lower level employees, feelings of psychological empowerment should ensue. Consistent with these expectation, existing empirical research provides strong support for the positive relationship between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment (Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2004; Spreitzer, 1996). Further evidence of the positive association between social structural and psychological empowerment comes from the meta-analysis performed by Seibert and colleagues (2011), who reported a positive correlation between psychological empowerment and structural empowerment (i.e., delegation of authority and responsibility), as well as high-performance managerial practices (which include structural empowerment).

In addition to investigating the associations between the social-structural environment and psychological empowerment, research has shown that work design characteristics can strongly influence perceptions of empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011). In particular, psychological empowerment is rooted in job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), which posits that a number of core job characteristics (e.g., task variety, task significance, and autonomy) drive key psychological states (e.g., meaningfulness and responsibility for outcomes).

It is not surprising then that previous research has found that when jobs are designed with high levels of core job characteristics, employees are likely to have increased feelings of psychological empowerment (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Seibert et al., 2011; Spreitzer, 1996). These findings suggest that psychological empowerment is, in part, a function of challenging jobs that promote a felt sense of meaningfulness of work and responsibility over outcomes.

Another particularly salient driver of empowerment appears to be leadership. In fact, Seibert and colleagues (2011) report that some form of leadership has been examined as an antecedent of psychological empowerment more than any other construct. Psychological empowerment has been linked to transformational leadership (e.g., Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, & Brown, 1999; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003), leader-member exchange (e.g., Aryee & Chen, 2006; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Liden et al., 2000) and trust in leader (Ergeneli et al., 2007; Moye, Henkin, & Egley, 2005). Not surprisingly, in their meta-analysis, Seibert and colleagues (2011) report a strong positive relationship between leadership and psychological empowerment.

Finally, supportive organizational contexts have commonly been linked to psychological empowerment. For example, empowerment climate (i.e., information sharing, autonomy through boundaries, and team accountability), access to information, individual performance-based rewards, and perceived organizational support (Chen et al., 2007; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Spreitzer, 1995) have been shown to enhance perceptions of empowerment. Furthermore, Seibert and colleagues (2011) report meta-analytic evidence that social-political support is positively related to psychological empowerment. Not surprisingly, supportive and ennobling environments enhance perceptions of psychological empowerment. Together these results

indicate that environmental events provide highly salient cues about individuals' ongoing behavior (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

1.2.2 Consequences of Psychological Empowerment

Within the existing empowerment literature, there are a large number of outcomes that have been linked to psychological empowerment. As with all constructs, results vary with individual studies; however the overwhelming evidence points to the positive effect of psychological empowerment on an assortment of outcomes, in a wide variety of contexts. Findings across a wide range of studies have indicated that employees and organizations alike benefit from psychological empowerment. In other words, when individuals are empowered, positive individual, group, and organizational outcomes are likely. Since psychological empowerment is conceived as an individual motivational force, most research has been aimed at uncovering the individual benefits of empowerment. Seemingly the most studied and most consistent finding in the empowerment literature is the positive association between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction (e.g., Aryee & Chen, 2006; Carless, 2004; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Laschinger et al., 2004; Seibert et al., 2004; Sparrowe, 1994; Spreitzer et al., 1997). It comes as no surprise, then, that in their meta-analysis, Seibert and colleague (Seibert et al., 2011) report a strong positive correlation between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Thus it appears that one of the primary benefits of psychological empowerment is employees who are satisfied with their jobs.

Additional research has pointed to the positive implications of empowerment on a host of other psychological and behavioral variables. Katz (1964) argued that in order to be successful, organizations must induce individuals to join and remain in the organization, carry out their task

responsibilities in a reliable fashion, and engage in extra-role behaviors that help the organization and its members accomplish their goals, and previous research has shown that psychological empowerment has an important influence on each of these behaviors. Psychological empowerment has been shown to positively impact in-role performance and efficiency (e.g., Chen et al., 2007; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Koberg et al., 1999; Seibert et al., 2011; Seibert et al., 2004; Spreitzer et al., 1997), organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Seibert et al., 2011; Wat & Shaffer, 2005), organizational commitment (e.g., Avolio et al., 2004; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Kraimer et al., 1999; Seibert et al., 2011), and negatively associated with turnover intentions (e.g., Koberg et al., 1999; Kraimer et al., 1999; Seibert et al., 2011; Sparrowe, 1994). Furthermore, psychological empowerment has been shown to reduce job strain (e.g., Laschinger et al., 2004; Spreitzer et al., 1997), to mitigate against indicators of ill health (Hochwälder & Brucefors, 2005) and to promote positive mental and physical health (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003). Together these findings point to the individual benefits of psychological empowerment on a wide variety of affective responses, job behaviors, and even physical health.

Additional research has indicated that these individual benefits also enhance group and organizational performance (see Maynard et al., 2012 for a review). Research at the team and work unit levels have also indicated a positive association between collective psychological empowerment and group satisfaction and performance (e.g., Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Seibert et al., 2011; Seibert et al., 2004). Although considerably less research has been conducted at the group level of analysis, than at the individual level, a similar conclusion emerges – psychological empowerment can benefit individuals and organizations alike.

Indeed over the past fifteen years research on psychological empowerment has made great strides in understanding its association with what Staw (1984) considers some of the fields most researched outcomes: job satisfaction, turnover, and performance. By establishing relationships with durable outcomes and attitudes, the literature on psychological empowerment has been able to establish itself as a concept worth studying (Maynard et al., 2012). However, to differentiate itself from other motivational theories, it is important to establish what empowered behaviors psychological empowerment should promote. Considerably less attention has been paid to additional outcomes that could be considered empowered behaviors and attitudes. In other words, little conceptual or empirical work has been conducted to understand the role of psychological empowerment in extraordinary behaviors, which are precisely the behaviors psychological empowerment should encourage.

2 HYPOTHESES

As discussed above, there has been relatively little research that incorporates both the psychological and behavioral perspectives of proactivity. Having reviewed the literature on psychological empowerment, which represents the psychological perspective, I now turn my attention to the behavioral perspective and developing a conceptual model that synthesizes these two perspectives on proactivity.

2.1 Proactive Work Behaviors

Recently organizational scholars have drawn increased attention to the changing way work is performed and how productivity is assessed (e.g., Grant & Parker, 2009; Rousseau, 1997). As organizations shift from production economies to knowledge economies, the way work is performed and productivity measured has changed dramatically. Previously, work performance was predicated on the notion that jobs could be optimally designed to maximize efficiency, and individual performance was rated on the degree to which individuals carried out these specified tasks. Employees were viewed as passive recipients of job responsibilities where behavior could be coerced by managers, reinforcements, or other environmental stimuli (Locke & Latham, 2002). Effectiveness, then, could be measured in terms of contributions to organizational goal attainment or how well individuals carried out specific tasks designated by their job description (Campbell et al., 1993). However, the downside of this approach was that it does not account for the full range of behaviors necessary for effectiveness in contemporary dynamic work environments (Murphy & Jackson, 1999). Now, more than ever, organizations rely on employees to engage in a broader set of behaviors in order to foster creativity, innovation, change, and to develop a competitive advantage (Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001; Shalley et al., 2004; Unsworth, 2001).

Contemporary views of work performance, on the other hand, stress the increased uncertainty in defining work performance and effectiveness in dynamic and decentralized work environments (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Thompson, 1967). As a result of the changing view of work and work behaviors, research has shifted from a focus on in-role task accomplishment to a broader conceptualization of work roles in a dynamic environment (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991), where to be successful organizations must refrain from controlling employee behavior, but instead focus on promoting individual initiative in the work place (Frohman, 1997; O'Toole & Lawler, 2006). In response to this expanded view of work place behaviors, more contemporary theories of job design stress the importance designing of work to encourage proactive work behaviors (Grant & Parker, 2009). Moreover, several new behavioral constructs have been introduced into the management literature that incorporate this expanded set of work responsibilities and the motivational forces that give rise them. Behavioral constructs that reflect the increased importance of proactivity include taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996), voice (Hirschman, 1970), proactive creativity (Unsworth, 2001), pro-social rule breaking (Morrison, 2006), proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), adaptability (Pulakos et al., 2000), job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and proactive problem solving and idea implementation (Parker et al., 2006).

Although interest in specific forms of proactive work behaviors has grown rapidly over the past few decades, they have largely grown in isolation from one another and there has been little effort to integrate them as a conceptual whole (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010; Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). Instead several partially overlapping constructs that account for different aspects of proactivity at work have been advanced. While research in each of these domains has contributed greatly to understanding specific forms of

proactive behavior, their nature, antecedents and consequences, little is known about the more fundamental dynamics that govern general proactive work behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008). More recently, however, researchers have taken up the charge of understanding what these behaviors have in common and their general dynamics by considering proactive work behavior as a multidimensional construct.

For some time it has been assumed that many of these actions that constitute positive work behaviors may be more alike than they are different. In fact, Crant (2000) argued that there is considerable conceptual overlap between many constructs that fall under the banner of proactive behaviors, and future research should tease out these similarities and differences. Furthermore, the conceptual argument that a commonality exists among different proactive work behaviors has been, in large part, borne out in empirical research. Research indicating that commonality exists among multiple proactive work behaviors has evaluated and supported the tenability of a second-order latent factor. For example, several studies have found support for a second-order factor consisting of varying first-order proactive constructs (e.g., Grant et al., 2011; Grant et al., 2009; Parker & Collins, 2010).

2.1.1 Proactive Work Behaviors as a Multidimensional Construct

The first goal of this research is to contribute to the literature exploring the proactive work behavior as a multidimensional construct. Again, proactive work behaviors are defined as self-initiated, anticipatory action that aims to change and improve the situation and / or oneself (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker et al., 2006). Previous research attempting to understand the multidimensional nature of proactive work behaviors typically takes an exploratory approach to understanding the commonality among different manifestations of proactive work behavior. Primarily, research indicating that commonality exists among multiple

proactive work behaviors has evaluated and supported the tenability of a second-order latent factor. For example, Grant et al (2009) found support for an individual-level second-order factor comprised of voice, rational issue selling, and taking charge and Grant et al. (2011) supported a group-level second-order representation of group proactivity comprised of taking charge, upward influence, and voice. In the most robust attempt to clarify the conceptual domain of proactive work behaviors, Parker and Collins (2010) conducted an exploratory analysis and found three separate content categories of proactive behavior: proactive work behavior (i.e., taking charge, voice, individual innovation, and problem prevention), proactive person-environment fit (PE) behavior (i.e., feedback inquiry, feedback monitoring, job change negotiation, and career initiative), and proactive strategic behavior (strategic scanning, issue selling credibility, and issue selling willingness).

Although previous latent representations of proactive work behavior have generally been supported, suggesting that commonality exists, exiting research has been largely exploratory. In contrast, the present study argues for *a priori* dimensions of proactive work behaviors based on the intended beneficiary of the action. As opposed to taking existing measures and amalgamating them into a higher-order construct, I draw from previous research to argue that proactive work behaviors can be meaningfully differentiated based on the intended target of the impact. Previous scholars have argued that one useful way to view the dimensionality of proactive behaviors is by whom or what the behavior is intended to affect or change, and these different targets typically include the self, other people (i.e., coworkers), and the organization at large (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Therefore the first purpose of this dissertation is to develop a multidimensional measure of proactive work behavior comprised of three dimensions: personal, interpersonal, and organizational.

This typology of proactive work behaviors makes several important theoretical and practical contributions. Perhaps the most important benefit to making the distinction based on intended beneficiary of proactive work behaviors is the ease of which it allows for comparisons to other forms of work behavior. For example, both organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors portray behaviors directed at either other individuals (i.e., OCBI and CWBI) or the organization in general (i.e., OCBO and CWBO). Likewise the present conceptualization of proactive work behaviors differentiates between behaviors aimed at other individuals (interpersonal) and at the organization at large (organizational). Moreover, the personal dimension of proactive work behaviors allows for a comparison with in-role behaviors, both of which focus exclusively on individual tasks and accomplishments. In short, the present conceptualization allows for continuity when comparing and contrasting proactive work behaviors with other workplace behaviors.

Hypothesis 1: Personal, interpersonal, and organizational targeted proactive work behaviors will be distinct from each other.

Whereas previous attempts to identify a higher-order category of proactive work behaviors have focused on content dimensions (e.g., taking charge, voice, innovation) (Grant et al., 2011; Grant et al., 2009; Parker & Collins, 2010), the current model focuses on beneficiary dimensions (i.e., personal, interpersonal, and organizational). In addition to the conceptual advantages of the beneficiary model reviewed above, I posit that the beneficiary model will have quantitative benefits as well. In other words, I argue that the beneficiary model will provide a better summary of the data than the content model. At a general level, previous scholars have noted that one powerful way to summarize categories of work behavior is based on whom the

behavior is intended to affect, and that these targets typically include one's self, coworkers, and the organization in general (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). For example, although citizenship behaviors contain the content dimensions such as voice, volunteerism, boosterism, and civic virtue, it is the beneficiary dimensions of interpersonal and organizational that best summarize the data (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Lee & Allen, 2002). Likewise, while measures for counterproductive work behavior include content dimensions such as withdrawal, incivility, and bullying, it is the beneficiary dimensions of interpersonal and organizational that are consistently most salient in respondents. Following from this position, I hypothesize that the beneficiary of these proactive work behaviors will be more salient than the content of these behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: Personal, interpersonal, and organizational proactive work behaviors will together identify a higher-order category of proactive work behavior.

Hypothesis 3: Proactive work behaviors manifest through beneficiary dimensions will provide improved model fit over proactive work behaviors manifest through content dimensions.

2.1.2 Relationships among Work Behaviors

While there is growing consensus that proactive work behaviors represent a theoretically unique facet of behavior, there remains confusion concerning how proactive behaviors relate to other forms of work behavior. In fact, there is little empirical evidence that suggests proactive work behavior is unique from in-role behavior, citizenship behavior, or counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the second goal of this research is to differentiate proactive work behaviors

form other forms of work behavior (i.e., in-role behavior, extra-role behavior, counterproductive behavior).

Individual work performance consists of several distinct sets of activities that contribute to or diminish from organizational objectives in different ways (Campbell, 1990). Therefore it is important to consider how different aspects of work behavior are similar to and different from each other. In this dissertation, I am concerned with four categories of work behavior: in-role behavior, citizenship behavior, counterproductive behavior, and proactive behavior. In the following sections, I will briefly review each of these forms of behavior.

In-role behavior. Proficiently fulfilling in-role responsibilities has been the dominant focus of traditional performance-based research (Griffin et al., 2007). These formal job responsibilities are referred to within the management literature as task, or in-role, behavior, which is defined as those activities that are directly involved in the accomplishment of core work tasks, or behaviors that directly support the accomplishment of tasks involved in an organization's "technical core" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Likewise, Katz and Kahn (1978) described in-role behaviors as dependably meeting or exceeding standards of performance prescribed by organizational roles. Because activities that comprise in-role behavior are well-established and fundamental to any given job, there is considerable consensus about what activities are considered in-role and are relatively stable over time (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Overall, activities are considered in-role behaviors when employees comply with the known expectations and requirements of their formal role description in an effort to contribute to individual and organizational goal accomplishment.

Citizenship behavior. Whereas in-role performance includes formally specified behaviors, a second class of work behaviors, citizenship behaviors, are less formal behaviors that

contribute to organizational success less directly (Motowildo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Instead of contributing directly to organizational success, citizenship performance enhances the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core functions (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Katz and Kahn (1978) described these as extra-role behaviors that are innovative and spontaneous in going beyond prescribed roles and constitute doing a little bit extra in fulfilling their job description. Commensurate with these descriptions, citizenship behaviors are defined as voluntary employee activities that may or may not be rewarded but that contribute to the organization by improving the overall quality of the setting in which the work takes place (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The most commonly used labels for such behaviors are organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB; Smith et al., 1983) or contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Although the citizenship behaviors refer to the general propensity to engage in extra-role behaviors, research suggests two main categories of such behavior based on the intended beneficiary of the action: interpersonal or organizational (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The first category of citizenship behaviors, interpersonal citizenship behaviors (OCBI), focuses on providing assistance, support or developmental aid to coworkers or colleagues that goes beyond normal job expectations (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Examples of OCBI include providing assistance to coworkers with heavy workloads, personal problems, or new employees (helping), keeping coworkers informed about work-related issues that are relevant to him or her (courtesy), and maintaining a positive attitude with coworkers even if work is difficult or relationships are strained (sportsmanship).

The second category of citizenship behavior, organizational citizenship behavior (OCBO), focuses on those behaviors that benefit the organization as a whole in ways that go

beyond typical expectations by supporting the organization, providing suggestions to improve working conditions, and being acutely loyal (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Examples of OCBO include representing the organization in a positive way in public and away from work (boosterism), participating in company operations at a deeper-than-normal level by attending voluntary meetings and functions, keeping abreast of organizational events, and news that affects the company (civic virtue), and speaking up and offering constructive suggestions for organizational change or improvement (voice).

Counterproductive work behavior. Whereas task and citizenship behaviors generally contribute to helping organizations achieve their objectives, counterproductive work behaviors do the opposite. Counterproductive behaviors are defined as employee behaviors that intentionally hinder organizational goal accomplishment, do harm to coworkers, or both (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Counterproductive work behaviors are synonymous with workplace deviance and represent a violation of organizational norms consisting of basic moral standards of appropriate behavior including both traditional community standards, as well as formal and informal organizational rules, policies and procedures (Feldman, 1984).

Like citizenship behaviors, previous research has suggested different categories of counterproductive behavior ranging from minor to serious and interpersonal to organizational. However, subsequent theoretical and empirical investigation has identified the most salient distinction in workplace deviance rests on whether the deviance is directed at either the organization in general (counterproductive work behavior – organizational; CWBO) or at members of the organization (counterproductive work behavior – interpersonal; CWBI) (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Here, behaviors categorized as CWBO include damaging organizational property through acts such as theft or sabotage, and actions that hinder productivity such as

wasting or misusing organizational resources. On the other hand, behaviors categorized as CWBI include such actions as gossiping, harassment, abuse, and incivility.

Together, in-role, citizenship, and counterproductive work behavior represent the three broad categories of work performance. However, the introduction of proactive work behaviors has led some scholars to call for an increased understanding of where proactive work behaviors fit in with respect to other, commonly studied, forms of work behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010; Thomas et al., 2010). Some scholars have argued that proactive work behaviors are by definition extra-role behaviors since they involve activities that are self-directed and not specified by role requirements (e.g., Parker et al., 2006; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Other scholars have suggested that proactive behaviors can occur both with in-role requirements and beyond them (Crant, 2000). From this perspective, individuals can be proactive with respect to assigned tasks (i.e., doing the task better than directed or finding strategies for doing it more efficiently), or they can be proactive beyond their role responsibilities (i.e., doing the task differently or doing additional unassigned tasks that aid goal accomplishment). Whether proactive behaviors are in-role or extra-role becomes murkier since proactive individuals are more likely to perceive their roles more broadly (Parker et al., 1997), change the boundary conditions of their role assignments (Morrison, 1994), and ultimately include new tasks and goals as part of their core job responsibilities (Frese & Fay, 2001). In the end, this suggests that proactive work behaviors should be related to both in-role and extra-role behaviors, but also distinct from them; however there has been little research to test this assumption.

Furthermore, it is possible that proactive work behaviors could be similar to certain forms of counterproductive work behaviors. Because proactive work behaviors necessitate self-directed action with the intent of improving or changing working conditions, many managers may view

these behaviors as counterproductive to the organizational mission. For example, when a supervisor instructs an employee to carry out specific tasks to complete an assignment and that employee carries out those tasks proactively (i.e., differently than instructed), supervisors could see this as questioning of their authority or even acting in opposition to the intended organizational goal. At their core, both counterproductive work behaviors and proactive work behaviors are deviations from the status quo. However, there has been little research exploring the relationships between counterproductive work behaviors and proactive work behaviors.

In sum, previous research has argued that proactive work behaviors are both similar to and unique from in-role behaviors, extra-role behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors; however, there has been no research, to my knowledge, that includes all four of these behaviors in a single model of workplace behavior. Therefore the second purpose of this dissertation is to understand the similarities and differences between proactive, task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. Now that I have conceptualized proactive work behaviors in a way similar to other work behaviors (i.e., based on the intended beneficiary), it becomes possible to make like comparisons between proactive work behaviors and other forms of workplace behavior.

Here, I posit that proactive work behaviors will be distinct from task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. Specifically, proactive work behaviors go beyond in-role behaviors. Whereas in-role behaviors represent compliance with role expectations, proactive work behaviors transcend in-role performance through the promotion of self-initiated actions designed to improve conditions. Likewise, proactive work behaviors are not just another form of citizenship behaviors. Whereas citizenship behaviors are intended to enhance the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment, proactive work behaviors are intended to

change the environment for the better. For instance, helping a co-worker complete their in-role responsibilities would be considered helping behavior indicative of citizenship behavior. On the other hand, assisting coworkers in developing and implementing new approaches to improve the efficiency of the work group represents the change-oriented nature of proactive behavior. Finally, proactive work behaviors are different than counterproductive work behaviors. Although counterproductive and proactive work behaviors both represent intentional departures from organizational norms, proactive work behaviors are intended to improve the organizational system, whereas counterproductive work behaviors are intended to diminish them.

Hypothesis 4: In-role behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors, and proactive work behaviors will be distinct from each other.

In conclusion, there were two interrelated objectives in this section. First, I contribute to a multidimensional representation of proactive work behaviors. This research both adds to and expands upon previous multidimensional models of proactive work behavior by considering the proactive work behavior as a multidimensional construct manifest through the personal, interpersonal, and organizational dimensions. The primary benefit of this model of proactive work behavior is that it allows for the comparison to already established performance metrics and their intended targets (i.e., one's self, colleagues, organization). Second, I contribute to the understanding of the similarities and differences in the relationships between proactive, task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. The next section builds on this perspective by evaluating the effects of psychological empowerment and job stressors on proactive and counterproductive work behavior.

2.2 The Bright and Dark Sides of Psychological Empowerment

The purpose of the previous section was to understand the similarities and differences between four different workplace behaviors: proactive, citizenship, task, and counterproductive. I now turn my attention to providing a framework that has the potential to describe why individual may engage in different forms of behavior. In doing so, I integrate the hindrance-challenge stressors framework and psychological empowerment to suggest that psychological empowerment mediates the relationships between stressors and workplace behavior.

2.2.1 Antecedents of Psychological Empowerment

As previously stated, one of the goals of this research is to contribute to the understanding of the factors that contribute to psychological empowerment. Here I focus on the way in which stressors contribute to perceptions of empowerment. Job stress and job strain have long been assumed to be related to perceptions of empowerment, and research has generally supported this claim (Seibert et al., 2011; Spreitzer et al., 1997); however previous research considers stress or strain as a consequence of empowerment. On the other hand, the present research considers the role demands that cause individuals to experience stress (i.e., stressors) play in encouraging or discouraging perceptions of empowerment.

Initial theorizing suggested that job stress, and the factors that caused it (stressors), are detrimental to both organizations and employees. For individuals, stressful job demands were argued to reduce satisfaction and commitment, ultimately leading to turnover (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Netemeyer, Burton, & Johnston, 1995). This, in turn, adversely effected organizations through an unsatisfied workforce and the loss of intellectual capital through turnover (Branch, 1998; Lee & Maurer, 1997). However, as empirical research accumulated, it became apparent that stressors did not always have a deleterious effect on outcomes. As

expected, this research indicated that job demands were positively associated with turnover intentions and absenteeism, but contrary to expectations was positively associated with job satisfaction (e.g., Beehr, Glaser, Canali, & Wallwey, 2001; Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Dwyer & Ganster, 1991). These contradictory and somewhat counterintuitive findings suggested that not all job stress is by necessity bad, and led researchers to consider the differential effects of two types of stressors: hindrance and challenge.

Hindrance Stressors. Hindrance stressors represent stressful demands that are perceived as hindering progress toward goal attainment or task accomplishment (e.g., LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Examples of hindrance stressors include: mundane activities that get in the way of goal accomplishment (i.e., hassles), conflicting expectations about work behavior and performance (i.e., role conflict), lack of clear information about work role expectations or inconsistent consequences of performance (i.e., role ambiguity), and too many demands or roles to perform effectively (i.e., role overload). Overall, when work tasks involve role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload, psychological empowerment will be diminished (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

LePine et al (2005) argued that hindrance stressors discourage motivation primarily through the perception that increased effort would not improve the chances of meeting work demands. In other words, hindrance stressors should be associated with low levels of motivation since individuals do not perceive an association between effort exerted and the likelihood of accomplishing the desired outcome (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005). Building from this research, I hypothesize that hindrance stressors are negatively associated with psychological empowerment. Although no research, to my knowledge, seeks to understand the associations between hindrance stressors and the gestalt of psychological empowerment, some research has

accumulated to suggest that individual dimensions of empowerment are meaningfully related to challenge stressors. For instance, hindrance stressors have been found to be negatively associated with self-efficacy beliefs (Webster, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2010), as well as motivational congruence (which is similar to autonomy) and relevance (which is similar to impact) (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Moreover, hindering job demands inhibit the perception that work tasks are meaningful and diminish the intrinsic worth of accomplishing work-related tasks (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). When taken together, these findings suggest that hindrance stressors should inhibit perceptions of psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 5: Hindrance stressors are negatively associated with psychological empowerment.

Challenge Stressors. Challenge stressors represent the stressful demands that promote opportunities for goal achievement, learning, and development (e.g., LePine et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). Examples of challenge stressors include: the sense that the afforded time to accomplish a given task is not quite enough (time pressure), the requirements of a task challenge the individuals knowledge, skills, and abilities (work complexity), and the degree to which that successful task accomplishment has an impact on others (work responsibility). In contrast to hindrance stressors, challenge stressors are associated with high levels of motivation because they promote opportunities for personal growth (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004).

Challenge stressors, because they are associated with opportunities for growth, learning, and goal attainment, should enhance perceptions of psychological empowerment. Conger and Kanungo (1988) theorized that in order to empower individuals, jobs must be designed to

challenge employees. By providing opportunities to overcome obstacles, challenge stressors promote learning mastery activities that reinforce and enhance self-efficacy beliefs (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Webster et al., 2010). As a gestalt construct, psychological empowerment reflects an active-orientation toward one's work role (Spreitzer, 1995), and previous research indicates that challenge stressors promote active problem solving strategies (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Challenging job demands enhance the intrinsic worth of accomplishing work objectives (Crawford et al., 2010), which should foster perceptions of psychological empowerment. Finally, the job design literature points to the positive relationship between challenging jobs (e.g., task variety and task complexity) and psychological empowerment (Liden et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1996). When taken together, these theoretical developments and empirical findings suggest that challenge stressors should be positively associated with psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 6: Challenge stressors are positively associated with psychological empowerment.

2.2.2 Consequences of Psychological Empowerment

As stated previously, one of the overarching purposes of this dissertation is to provide additional insights into the role that psychological empowerment plays in promoting different forms of workplace behaviors. A growing body of research supports the positive association between psychological empowerment and enhanced in-role behaviors (e.g., Chen et al., 2007; Seibert et al., 2004; Spreitzer, 1995) Likewise, previous research has indicated a positive association between the psychological empowerment and citizenship behaviors (e.g., Seibert et al., 2011; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). The present research extends previous findings by considering

the relationship between psychological empowerment and proactive and counterproductive work behaviors.

Proactive work behaviors. In addition to engaging in behaviors that are designed to contribute to the status quo, I also expect that psychologically empowered employees will engage in behaviors that are intended to modify or change the status quo. Psychological empowerment represents an active orientation toward work role (Spreitzer, 1995). As such, I expect that when individuals experience empowerment they will be more likely to exhibit proactive behaviors that are designed to positively change the situation for oneself, their functional unit, or the organization in general.

Previous theoretical research has suggested that empowerment should be useful to motivate employees to persist and overcome organizational obstacles (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). When faced with ambiguity or difficulties at work, empowered individuals will seek to change existing norms or patterns of action in order to accomplish their objectives. Psychologically empowered employees will not simply give up when faced with adversity, but will instead act in order to remove impediments to goal accomplishment. Moreover, empowered employees should demonstrate flexibility in controlling their task environment, initiation of new tasks as problems or opportunities arise, and resiliency in the face of obstacles, sustaining motivation when faced with problems or difficulties (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Although no empirical work has investigated the relationship between psychological empowerment and generalized proactive work behaviors, some research has accumulated to suggest that the gestalt of psychological empowerment is positively associated with similar constructs such as creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010) and innovative behaviors (Spreitzer, 1995). Furthermore, previous research has found that team empowerment is positively related to team

proactivity (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). This dissertation contributes to this line of inquiry by examining the link between psychological empowerment and individual proactivity. Together, these conceptual developments and empirical findings suggest that there is a positive association between psychological empowerment and proactive work behaviors.

Hypothesis 7: Psychological empowerment is positively associated with proactive work behavior.

Counterproductive work behavior. While empowerment has generally been considered a precursor to desirable organizational behaviors, others have suggested that there may be a "dark side" to empowerment (Pfeffer, Cialdini, Hanna, & Knopoff, 1998), yet little research has explored the potential deleterious effects of empowerment. For starters, empowerment may lead to overconfidence and misjudgments on the part of employees, and overconfident employees may persist in is efforts that are counterproductive to organizational goal accomplishment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Motivated by a sense of overconfidence, empowered employees may seek to change situations for themselves or the organization when no change is necessary, or change in counterproductive from the perspective of management. Moreover, empowerment may come with a false sense of entitlement or superiority, whereby empowered employees might offset their perceived positive contributions with negative ones. Equity theory suggests that individuals continuously monitor their ratio of inputs to outcomes relative to others, and adjust their behavior accordingly (Adams, 1965). One way individuals may seek to restore the inequity created by engaging in empowered behaviors is to offset them with counterproductive ones. For example, an individual who recently developed a new product may feel empowered to engage in

behaviors that are considered counterproductive (e.g., come in late to work, take long lunch breaks, or treat other employees with hostility).

Although there is little literature linking psychological empowerment to workplace deviance, significant literature has accumulated that suggests that power can corrupt decision-making (Kipnis, 1972, 1976). For instance, a sense of workplace power can cause employees to devalue the contributions of others (Kipnis, 1972; O Neal, Kipnis, & Craig, 1994). Likewise, Silver (2000) found that empowered engineers were less likely to adhere to time deadlines and more likely to miss delivery targets. With respect to the individual dimensions of psychological empowerment, previous research has indicated that autonomy can encourage workplace sabotage and work avoidance (Fox et al., 2001) and locus of control (similar to impact) can encourage aggression against others (Heacox, 1996). When taken together, these finding suggest that one potential dark side of psychological empowerment is the increased likelihood of engaging in counterproductive behaviors.

Hypothesis 8: Psychological empowerment is positively associated with counterproductive work behavior.

2.2.3 Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment

To this point, I have argued that the type of stressor incurred at work promotes different levels of psychological empowerment, and this perception of empowerment, in turn, translates into different behavioral consequences. In other words, I have implicitly described a model in which psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between job stressors and job behaviors. Previous research has documented that challenge and hindrance stressors have differential effects on in-role behaviors, citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work

behaviors (LePine et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Rodell & Judge, 2009), and here I argue that empowerment play an important role in explaining the relationship between stressors and counterproductive work behavior. In addition, this research is the first, to my knowledge, to examine the relationship between stressors and proactive work behaviors. Here too, I argue that the way in which individuals view empowerment plays a mediating relationship between stressors and proactive work behavior.

As previously noted, individuals are likely to be empowered when they view their work demands as challenges and not hindrances. From this follows behavioral consequences that result from a sense of psychological empowerment including increased proactive and counterproductive behaviors. Such a perspective of the mediating role of psychological empowerment between situational antecedents and behavioral outcomes is consistent with previous conceptual development (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Maynard et al., 2012; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), and the approach taken in previous empirical research (Seibert et al., 2011; Spreitzer et al., 1997) Thus, I expect hindrance and challenge stressors to influence work behavior through perceptions of psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 9a: Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and proactive work behaviors.

Hypothesis 9b: Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and counterproductive work behaviors.

Hypothesis 10a: Psychological empowerment meditates the relationship between challenge stressors and proactive work behaviors.

Hypothesis 10b: Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and counterproductive work behaviors.

3 METHODS

3.1 Initial Item Generation

To begin, I wrote a pool of 36 items (see Appendix C), consisting of twelve items intended to reflect each of the three beneficiary dimensions of proactive work behavior (personal, interpersonal, and organizational) and four content dimensions (taking charge, personal initiative, voice, and innovation). In order to assess the face validity of these newly developed items, and corresponding proactive work behavior scale (PWBS), I had 3 Ph.D. students in Management participate in a sorting exercise. Each of the raters was provided with the definition of proactive work behavior, as well as the definition of each beneficiary and content dimension. Raters were provided with the items in random order, and then asked to use deductive reasoning to sort the items based on their *a priori* dimensions by both content and beneficiary. Additionally, raters were provided with the opportunity to provide open-ended comments on any of the written items. High rater agreement provides preliminary evidence of the content validity of the item pool (Hinkin, 1995). In aggregate, raters correctly classified 87% of the items along their content dimension, and 92% along their beneficiary dimension. Having found reasonable face validity of the items, the full item pool was subsequently provided to participants in the context of the larger survey study.

3.2 Sample and Procedures

For the larger cross-sectional survey study, data was collected from employees from a consortium of non-profit agencies located throughout the United States. Individuals working in these non-profit agencies are involved in residential youth care and job responsibilities included nursing and medical staff, case managers, teachers and educational support, direct care youth workers, supervisory staff, and administrative support staff. During the fall of 2011, members of

the project team visited five different non-profit agencies where we introduced the survey and encouraged participation at their respective agencies' mandatory monthly staff meetings. Employees who did not wish to participate in the survey were invited to exit the room and asked to return later for the scheduled staff meeting; however, no one selected this option. Since the staff meetings were mandatory and no one opted out of the survey, the response rate was 100 percent. Participants completed hard copies of the survey and were assured that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential. To encourage participation, organization-specific feedback about study variables was promised to agency leaders and was later presented to the participating agencies. The final sample included 426 full-time and part-time employees, with an average age of 35.04 years (range = 16 to 76; *SD* = 12.03) and 71% were women. Most of the participants were full time employees of their respective agencies (80%), with an average tenure of 5.53 years (range = 0 to 39; *SD* = 6.94). Most participants were White (81%) and approximately half (47%) had Bachelor's degree and an additional 25% held a Master's degree.

3.3 Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, all items used a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. Example items for each construct are provided below and full scales including all items are provided in Appendix C.

3.3.1 Employee Behaviors

To measure *in-role behavior*, participants completed Williams and Anderson's (1991) 5-item in-role performance scale (α = .84). An example item is: "I adequately complete my assigned duties". I measured *organizational citizenship behavior* using Lee and Allen's (2002) 16-item scale. This scale includes eight items from each OCBO (α = .88) and OCBI (α = .80). An example OCBO item is: "I attend functions that are not required but that help the

organizational image", and an example OCBI item is: "I help others who have been absent". The overall scale reliability is α = .87. *Counterproductive work behaviors* were measured using Fox and Spector's (1999) Adapted Job Reactions Survey. I used two subscales that included CWBs directed toward the organization (13-items; α = .78) and those directed toward coworkers (nine-items; α = .72). Examples include: "failed to help a coworker" and "daydreamed rather than did your work" for interpersonal and organizational CWBs, respectively. Responses were on a seven-point scale anchored at 1 = *never* to 7 = *extremely often*. The composite reliability of the CWB measure is α = .82. *Proactive work behaviors* were measured using the final items developed in the sorting exercise described above reflecting the three dimensions: personal (α = .91), interpersonal (α = .94), and organizational (α = .96). The overall scale reliability is α = .96. Responses were on a seven-point scale anchored at 1 = *never* to 7 = *extremely often*.

3.3.2 Employee Attitudes

Psychological Empowerment. Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item Empowerment scale was used to measure the four dimensions of psychological empowerment. A sample item for each of the four dimensions of psychological empowerment is: "The work I do is meaningful to me" (meaning), "I am confident about my ability to do my job" (competence), "I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work" (self-determination), and "My impact on what happens in my department is large" (impact). The α reliabilities of the four empowerment dimensions are meaning (.89), competence (.85), self-determination (.84), and impact (.87). The overall scale exhibited adequate internal consistency (α = .86).

Stressors. Challenge and hindrance stressors were measured with Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) 11-item scale. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which the statements produce stress at work on a scale ranging from 1 (no stress) to 5 (a great deal of stress). Five of

these items represent hindrance stressors (α = .68), including "the amount of red tape I need to get through to get my job done." The remaining six items represent challenge stressors (α = .91), including "time pressure I experience."

3.4 Missing Data

Within the data set, there was a small amount of missing data on a number of the items. The total percentage of missing data was less than 1% of the total data set. Because of the potential detrimental effects of not including all available data in the analysis process, I imputed the missing data using the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) imputation process within PRELIS. In doing so, I used the entire data set (including all parameters of interest, as well as demographic variables such as gender, age, previous work experience, and undergraduate major) to impute the missing data, therefore maintaining the important characteristics of the data set. By using the entire data set to impute the missing data, this improved my ability to calculate unbiased and efficient parameter estimates (Graham, Cumsille, & Elek-Fisk, 2003).

4 RESULTS

4.1 PWB Measure Development

The first purpose of this dissertation is to develop the PWBS, assess its validity, and discriminate proactive work behaviors from other forms of work behavior. To accomplish this objective, I begin by analyzing the psychometric properties of the PWBS items themselves using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Next, I test for the distinctiveness of the newly developed PWBS from with existing measures of in-role, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. In aggregate, these analyses are designed to test Hypotheses 1 through 4.

4.2 Analysis of PWBS Items

In order to assess the 36 PWBS items developed in this dissertation, I conducted a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Hatcher (1994) cautions against using the same data to perform both an EFA and a CFA because it may conflate the validity of the measures and lead to measurement models that are not generalizeable. Therefore, following recommendations by Hinkin (1998) and to enhance the validity of these analyses, I randomly split the sample in half. The EFA was performed using the first half of the sample, and the dimensionality of each components obtained from the EFA was validated using the second half via the CFA.

4.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analyses of PWB Items

I begin by conducting a principal components analysis (PCA) of the 36 PWBS items with the randomly selected sample (n = 211). Although the PWBS items were written to confirm the beneficiary dimensions, I opted to first treat the item pool in an exploratory fashion in the event that alternative interpretable factors may emerge in the analysis. Because the proposed three beneficiary dimensions all reflect a general tendency to engage in proactive behavior at work, I

expected the three factors to be correlated. Therefore, I conducted the PCA using an oblique rotation (Promax). Although items were written to correspond to three *a priori* components, I conducted a parallel analysis (Horn, 1965; Hoyle & Duvall, 2004) to objectively and empirically arrive at the appropriate number of components. The parallel analysis attempts to define objective criteria for determination of the number of factors that underlie a data set, and overcomes several of the limitations of the Kaiser-Guttman Rule and scree test (Thompson, 2004).

The rationality of the parallel analysis is that for finite samples, some factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 will occur as a result of sampling error. Parallel analysis attempts to correct for this sampling error by constructing a number of correlation matrices generated from random data having the same sample size and number of variables (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). The average and 95% eigenvalues from the random data sets are then compared to the actual sample eigenvalues. The first eigenvalues from the actual data set are then compared to the first eigenvalues from the random data set; the second eigenvalues from the actual data is compared to the second eigenvalues from the random data set and so on. Eigenvalues in the actual data set that are greater than their corresponding ones generated by the random data should be retained, whereas values from the actual data set that are smaller than the ones derived from the random data set are considered to be a result of sampling error and thus dropped from the solution. The results from the parallel analysis indicated that a three factor solution should be interpreted.

Since both the parallel analysis and my *a priori* expectations suggested a three factor solution, I conduct a PCA specifying three components. The pattern matrix for this solution, which accounted for 61.90% of the variance, is presented in Table 1. Following procedures

described by Tabchnick and Fidel (2007), I screened the items for potential items that should be dropped. In the end, all 36 items were retained as all items loaded in excess of .40 on their hypothesized beneficiary component, and no items loaded above .40 on more than one component. These findings provide initial support Hypothesis 1 and illustrate that the personal, interpersonal, and organizational dimensions of proactive work behavior are distinct from each other. Additionally, and consistent with Hypothesis 2, the high inter-correlations among the components, shown in Table 2, indicate that there is some degree of commonality among the three components. Finally, these results are also consistent with Hypothesis 3, which posits that the beneficiary dimension model will summarize the data better than the content dimension model. In short, there is sufficient evidence that the generated items loaded onto their beneficiary dimensions and not their content dimensions.

4.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analyses of PWB Items

Using the other half of the randomly split sample (n = 212), I conducted a CFA using Mplus 6.11 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2011) with maximum likelihood estimation. I begin by specifying a model consistent with the hypothesized three first-order PWB beneficiary dimensions (Model 1), and found that this model provides acceptable model fit ($\chi^2_{630,\ n = 212}$ = 1400.49; RMSEA = .080; CFI = .966; NNFI = .964). Next, I specified a series of other plausible models and compared them to the baseline mode using the chi-squared difference test. These models include: all 36 PWBS items load onto one general PWB factor (Model 2); the PWBI and PWBP items load on a common factor (Model 3); the PWBP and PWBO items load on a common factor (Model 4); the PWBI and PWBO items load on a common factor (Model 5); and one in which the items load onto their four content dimensions (Model 6) of personal initiative,

voice, taking charge, and individual innovation. As shown by the fit statistics presented in Table 3, Model 1 provided the best model fit.

Results of this analysis indicate that the factor structure found in the PCA fits the data well in a confirmatory framework with a second randomly selected sample, providing further support for Hypothesis 1 and indicating that the factor structure is stable across the sample population. As shown in Table 4, the three PWB factors exhibited strong relationships in the hypothesized model, with latent correlations ranging from .41 to .75. Therefore, I specified a higher-order PWB construct in which the three beneficiary dimensions load onto a common second-order latent construct. As shown in Table 5, all first-order and second-order factors significantly loaded onto their expected factor, which provides initial support for Hypothesis 2. Finally, in support of Hypothesis 3, the beneficiary model (Model 1) provided better model fit than the content model (Model 6).

4.3 Relationships among Work Behaviors

Having found support for the factor structure of the newly developed PWBS, I now further assess the plausibility of PWB as a second-order construct (Hypothesis 2) and establish the discriminant validity of the PWB from forms of work behavior (Hypothesis 4). To do so, I utilized the entire sample (n = 423), and conduct a series of analyses to assess the relationships among work behaviors.

Prior to examining my research hypotheses, I created parcels[1] for each measure of work behaviors in my research model. Parceling is a technique commonly used in structural equation modeling (SEM) to achieve a "just identified" model, where the number of parameter estimates

[1] I also conducted these analyses without using parcels, and although this significantly reduced model fit, the pattern of relationships among the variables remained the same. In short, regardless of whether parcels were used or not, the findings and conclusions remain unchanged.

is equal to the number of unique observed pieces of information available. Parceling indicators offers several advantages over item-level modeling, including parsimony, higher reliability, lower likelihood of distributional violations, and reduced sources of sampling error (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). To create parcels for IRB, OCBI, OCBO, CWBI, and CWBO I utilized an item-to-construct balance (Little et al., 2002), since each of these latent constructs in unidimensional. Using the item-specific loadings as a guide, I used the three highest loadings as an anchor for the three parcels. Subsequently, the next three highest loadings were added in reverse order until all items were included on one factor. However, since the proposed proactive work behavior measure contained the *a priori* dimensions of personal initiative, voice, taking charge, and individual innovation, I utilized facet representative parcels where the three items from each dimension were averaged to create four facet representative parcels for each PWBP, PWBI, and PWBO.

To ensure that the generated parcels represent their expected constructs, I begin with a PCA on the 27 parcels. Given my expectation that these parcels would be highly interrelated, I opted to use an oblique rotation (Promax) with eight factors: IRB, OCBI, OCBO, PWBP, PWBI, PWBO, CWBI, and CWBO. As shown in Table 6, all parcels loaded in excess of .60 on their expected component, and no parcels loaded in excess of .40 on more than one component. These results provide initial support for Hypothesis 4, that PWB is unique from task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. Moreover, results of this analysis corroborate my expectations that each parcel adequately represents its respective unique construct domain.

Next, I utilized confirmatory factor analyses to formally assess Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4. I begin by specifying a baseline first-order model in which all parcels load onto their respective eight first-order factors (Model 1): IRB, OCBI, OCBO, PWBP, PWBI, PWBO, CWBI, and

CWBO. This model demonstrates close model fit ($\chi^2_{296,\ n = 423}$ = 589.59; RMSEA = .048; CFI = .982; NNFI = .979). Table 7 presents Model 1 first-order factor loadings, intercepts, residuals, and squared multiple correlation values for each parcel.

As shown in Table 8, the first-order correlations for Model 1depict a slightly different pattern of interrelations among the PWB beneficiary dimensions. First, PWBP was positively associated with in-role behavior (r = .44; p < .001), OCBI (r = .48; p < .001), OCBO (r = .50; p < .001) and not significantly associated with CWBI (r = .10; p = n.s.) and CWBO (r = -.05; p = n.s.). Second, PWBI was positively associated with in-role behavior (r = .29; p < .001), OCBI (r = .50; p < .001), OCBO (r = .53; p < .001), and CWBI (r = .12; p < .05), and not significantly related to CWBO (r = .03; p = n.s.). Third, PWBO was non-significantly associated with in-role behavior (r = .08; p = n.s.), positively related to OCBI (r = .28; p < .001) OCBO (r = .61; p < .001) and CWBI (r = .17; p < .01), and unrelated to CWBO (r = -.07; p = n.s.). This pattern of correlations indicates that although there is enough similarity in the interrelations among the PWB dimensions and other forms of work behavior to suggest that they have something in common, there is also enough dissimilarity to suggest that they are not completely redundant.

Next, I specify a baseline second-order model in which the eight first-order factors loaded onto their hypothesized second-order factors (Model 2). In this model first-order correlations are constrained to be zero, and the relations among the first-order constructs are explained only in terms of the second-order factors. This model demonstrates acceptable model fit ($\chi^2_{313,\ n = 423}$ = 751.65; RMSEA = .058; CFI = .973; NNFI = .970) suggesting that the second-order structure is an acceptable representation of the data. It is important to note that the first-order model provides better fit, according to the chi-square difference statistic ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 162.06, Δdf = 17, p < .001); however both models provide acceptable model fit. This finding is somewhat expected since

higher-order models are nested under first order models. However, as Marsh and colleagues note, when the fit of the second-order model approaches that of the first-order model, one might argue in favor of the second-order model on the basis of parsimony (Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002). This finding is also consistent with Parker and Collins (2010), who similarly found that their first-order content model of proactive work behaviors provided better model fit than its second-order counterpart. In short, these findings are supportive of Hypothesis 2 and suggest the second-order PWB model is a reasonable way of summarizing proactive work behaviors.

To investigate the discriminant validity of PWB, I specified additional higher-order models in which: in-role behavior and PWB load on a common factor (Model 3); OCB and PWB load on a common factor (Model 4); CWB and PWB load on a common second-order factor (Model 5); and all eight first-order factors load on a single second-order factor (Model 6). As shown in Table 9, Model 2 provided the best model fit, when compared to the other higher-order models, supporting the Hypothesis 4. In short, these results indicate that PWBs are distinct from task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. Second-order loadings, residuals, and squared multiple correlation values for Model 2 are depicted in Table 10.

Table 11 presents the correlations among the variables in Model 2. PWB is positively and significantly related to both in-role behavior ($r = .34$; $p < .001$) and citizenship behavior ($r = .82$; $p < .001$), but unrelated to counterproductive work behavior ($r = .02$; $p =$ n.s.). In sum, these results suggest that PWB is positively related to both task and citizenship behaviors; however nested model comparisons indicate that all three are unique forms of behavior. In particular, and as could be expected PWB, is highly and positively related to OCB; however nested model comparisons provide strong evidence that the two constructs are distinct from one another and

not redundant. When taken together, these findings provide support for Hypothesis 4 and indicate that proactive work behaviors are a unique form of work behavior.

4.4 The Bright and Dark Sides of Empowerment

Having found support for the validity of the PWBS and establishing PWB as a unique form of work behavior, I now turn my attention to my larger research model. I test my research hypotheses using two nested models. The first research model considers the specified relationships using higher-order latent constructs for the outcome measures of PWB and CWB, The second research model considers the specified relationships using first-order representations of this study's outcome measures: PWBP, PWBI, PWBO, CWBI, and CWBO.

4.4.1 Measurement Models

Following convention, I first fit the data to a measurement model prior to assessing the hypothesized relationships. For the proposed measurement model I loaded each individual parcel onto its respective first order factor (challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, psychological empowerment, PWBP, PWBI, PWBO, CWBI, and CWBO), and then loaded psychological empowerment, PWB, and CWB onto their respective higher-order factors. Each latent variable was scaled by setting the factor loading of the first indicator to 1.0. This model provided good model fit ($\chi^2_{576,\ n = 423}$ = 1164.06; RMSEA = .049; CFI = .973; NNFI = .976). Table 12 reports descriptive statistics and correlations among all study variables.

Next, in order to perform follow-up tests on the proposed relationships on the different dimensions of the outcome variables, it was necessary to fit a second measurement model. In this measurement model, I removed the second-order factor loadings for the PWB and CWB constructs. This model also provided good model fit ($\chi^2_{562,\ n = 423}$ = 1100.45; RMSEA = .048; CFI

= .978; NNFI = .971). Moreover, the first-order measurement model provided improved fit when compared to the second-order measurement model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 63.61$, $\Delta df = 14$, $p < .001$). Table 13 reports descriptive statistics and correlations among all study variables.

4.4.2 Tests of Substantive Relationships

In keeping with the theory I outlined previously, I next specified a model in which challenge and hindrance stressors predicted psychological empowerment, which in turn predicted PWB and CWB, including direct effects of stressors on outcomes. Since this model is equivalent to the measurement model specified above, fit statistics are identical. The standardized path estimates from the second model are depicted in Figure 3.

Hypothesis 5 stated that hindrance stressors would be negatively associated with psychological empowerment. As shown in Figure 3, this hypothesis was supported as hindrance stressors were negatively and significantly associated with psychological empowerment ($\beta = -.45$, $p < .001$). Hypothesis 6 posited that challenge stressors would be positively related to psychological empowerment. As shown in Figure 3, this hypothesis was also supported as challenge stressors were positively and significantly associated with psychological empowerment ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 7 stated that psychological empowerment would be positively associated with PWB. As shown in Figure 3, this hypothesis was supported as psychological empowerment was positively and significantly associated with PWB ($\beta = .71$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, follow-up tests revealed a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and the three dimensions of PWB. As shown it Figure 4, psychological empowerment was positively and significantly associated with PWBP ($\beta = .73$, $p < .001$), PWBI ($\beta = .63$, $p < .001$), and PWBO ($\beta = .46$, $p < .001$). Since the regression coefficients between psychological empowerment and the

beneficiary dimensions were all highly significant, I performed an additional test to determine if these relationships are different from one another. To do so, I specified an additional model where I equated the three regression coefficients. Results of this analysis indicate that these effects are not significantly different across dimensions as this model the same model fit when compared to the freely estimated model. ($\Delta\chi^2 = .17$, $\Delta df = 2$, $p = .92$).

Hypothesis 8 predicted that psychological empowerment would be positively related to CWB. As shown in Figure 3, this hypothesis was not supported, as psychological empowerment was not significantly related to CWB ($\beta = .02$, $p = .78$). As shown in Figure 4 follow-up tests revealed that as expected psychological empowerment was positively related to CWBI ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$), but contrary to my expectations, psychological empowerment was unrelated to CWBO (H12b: $\beta = -.00$, $p = .96$).

Hypothesis 9 predicted that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between hindrance stressors and (a) PWB and (b) CWB. As shown in Table 14, Hypothesis 9a was supported as psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and PWB (indirect effect = -.32, $p < .001$). I also performed follow-up tests to assess the proposed relationships on each of the three PWB beneficiary dimensions. As shown in Table 15, the three indirect effects were significant (PWBP: indirect effect = -.33, $p < .001$; PWBI: indirect effect = -.28, $p < .001$; PWBO: indirect effect = -.21, $p < .001$). As shown in Table 14, I found no support for Hypothesis 9b as the indirect effect of hindrance stressors on CWB through psychological empowerment was not significant (indirect effect = -.01, $p = .78$). Furthermore, as shown in Table 15, follow-up tests indicate that psychological empowerment does not have a significant indirect effect on the relationships between hindrance stressors and either of the CWB dimensions (CWBI: indirect effect = -.07, $p = .06$; CWBO: indirect effect = .00, $p = .97$).

Hypothesis 10 predicted that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between challenge stressors and (a) PWB and (b) CWB. As shown in Table 14, Hypothesis 10a was supported as the indirect effects of challenge stressors on PWB through psychological empowerment was significant (indirect effect = .15, $p < .01$). Furthermore, as shown in Table 15, follow-up tests revealed that psychological empowerment has an indirect effect on the relationships between challenge stressors and each of the three beneficiary dimensions of PWB (PWBP: indirect effect = .15, $p < .01$; PWBI: indirect effect = .13, $p < .01$; PWBO: indirect effect = .09, $p < .01$). As shown in Table 14, I found no support for Hypothesis 10b as the indirect effect between challenge stressors and CWB was not significant (indirect effect = .00, $p = .78$). Moreover, as shown in Table 15, follow-up tests indicated that the indirect effects of psychological empowerment on the relationships between challenge stressors and the two dimensions of CWB were not significant (CWBI: indirect effect = .03, $p = .09$; CWBO: indirect effect = .00, $p = .97$).

5 DISCUSSION

There were two primary, interrelated objectives of this dissertation. The first objective was to develop and validate the proactive work behavior scale (PWBS). In doing so, my intent was to document personal, interpersonal, and organizational proactive work behaviors as distinct dimensions of a more general proactive work behavior construct. Furthermore, I intended to establish PWB as a form of work behavior that was unique from task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. The second objective of this dissertation was to link the behavioral and psychological approaches to proactivity at work. Using the newly developed PWBS and a psychological empowerment framework, I synthesized these two perspectives on proactivity to enhance the field's understanding of how proactive psychological conditions (i.e., psychological empowerment) give rise to proactive behaviors. In this section I will review and interpret the primary findings of this dissertation as they relate to the existing literature, review the implications for research and practice, discuss the limitations of this research, and finally provide potential directions for future research.

5.1 Discussion of Results

This dissertation tested ten hypotheses centered on two core objectives. Table 16 provides a summary of the hypothesis test results and their outcomes. The first four hypotheses concerned the development and validation of a general measure of proactive work behaviors, the Proactive Work Behavior Scale (PWBS), and Hypotheses 5 through 10 focused on the bright and dark sides of empowerment research model.

Hypothesis 1 predicts that the personal, interpersonal, and organizational dimensions of proactive work behaviors will be distinct from each other. This hypothesis is supported as results from both the EFA and CFA indicate that these beneficiary dimensions of PWB are unique from

each other. This finding is consistent with previous scholars who have argued that one powerful way to view the dimensionality of work behaviors is by whom or what the behavior is intended to influence (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Specifically, I find that the participants of this study clearly differentiated between proactive behaviors aimed at improving their own working conditions (PWBP), those aimed at improving working conditions for others (PWBI), and those aimed at improving working conditions for the organization at large (PWBO).

Hypothesis 2 predicts that personal, interpersonal, and organizational proactive work behaviors will together identify a higher-order category of proactive work behavior. In general this hypothesis was supported, as model fit statistics indicate that the proposed second-order model fits the data well in an absolute sense. However, it is also important to note that the first-order model provided significantly better fit than the second-order model. As reported in the results section, this finding is consistent with previous research attempting to identify a higher-order category of proactive work behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010). Moreover, this finding is somewhat expected since the proposed model includes a complex relational network of four work behaviors and three beneficiaries of those behaviors. Due to this complex series of relationships, it is somewhat expected that the first-order model, with more freely estimated parameters, would provide improved model fit over the more constrained second-order model. However, as Marsh and colleagues note, when the fit of the second-order model approaches that of the first-order model, a strong case can be made in favor of the second-order model on the basis of parsimony (Marsh et al., 2002).

In practical terms, these findings suggest that both the first- and second-order models are reasonable ways of summarizing proactive work behaviors. Thus, the choice on whether to use the first- or second-order representation rests primarily on the research question being asked. The

second-order model is appropriate for researchers interested in a more general propensity to engage in proactive work behaviors, whereas the first-order model provides a more nuanced description of proactive work behaviors that would be useful for teasing apart different motivations to engage in proactivity aimed at improving conditions for oneself, coworkers, or the organization in general.

A final important consideration regarding proactive work behavior as a second-order construct is that not only did the second-order PWB model provided worse model fit than the analogous first-order model, so too did the second-order models for citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. In other words, first-order models for both OCB and CWB provided better model fit than their second-order counterparts. This finding supports my general argument that this dissertation contains a complex set of relationships that is difficult to summarize parsimoniously. Both OCB and CWB are frequently assessed using second-order constructs, and based on the results of this dissertation, a similar case can be made for PWB.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that proactive work behaviors manifested though beneficiary dimensions would provide improved model fit over proactive work behaviors manifest through content dimensions. This hypothesis was supported as results from both the EFA and CFA indicate that the beneficiary model provides a better summary of the data than the content model. This finding builds on the seminal work of Parker and Collins (2010), and others (Grant et al., 2011; Grant et al., 2009) who first proposed proactive work behaviors as a second-order category of content-based dimensions. The findings of this dissertation, however, provide a strong indication that change-oriented behaviors intended to improve conditions are largely based on who benefits from the behavior (i.e., oneself, coworkers, or the organization) rather than the content of the behaviors (i.e., taking charge, voice, individual innovation, or personal initiative).

These results provide strong support for my contention that the beneficiary model summarizes the data better than the content model.

In addition to the quantitative benefits of conceptualizing PWB through beneficiary dimensions, supported in Hypothesis 3, this conceptualization also provides a qualitative benefit. By constructing a measure of PWB based on beneficiary dimensions, it allows for a direct comparison between PWB and other forms of work behavior. As such, Hypothesis 4 predicts that in-role behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors, and proactive work behaviors will be distinct from each other. This hypothesis was also supported, as results from the CFA indicate that although these work behaviors are clearly related, they are also empirically distinct. This finding is important because although there is a growing consensus that proactive work behaviors represent a theoretically unique facet of behavior (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008), there was little empirical evidence to substantiate this argument. The results of this dissertation provide initial evidence that PWBs are not simply extensions of in-role behavior, alternative forms of citizenship behavior, or the antithesis of counterproductive work behavior. In sum, this dissertation establishes PWB as form of work behavior that is conceptually and empirically distinct from other commonly studied forms of work behavior.

The remaining hypotheses were concerned with this dissertation's larger research model linking psychological empowerment and job stressors to proactive and counterproductive work behaviors. Hypothesis 5 predicts that hindrance stressors are negatively associated with psychological empowerment. This hypothesis was supported as hindrance stressors exhibited a strong negative correlation with psychological empowerment. Consistent with my expectations and those of others (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), these results indicate that the experience of psychological empowerment is diminished when work tasks involve role ambiguity, conflict, and

overload. Moreover, these findings are consistent with much of the literature on hindrance stressors, as the relationships uncovered in this dissertation articulate an additional pathway by which hindrance stressors diminish progress toward task and goal accomplishment (LePine et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007).

Conversely, Hypothesis 6 predicts that challenge stressors will be positively associated with psychological empowerment. This hypothesis was also supported as the results indicate a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and challenge stressors. This finding is consistent with the notion that in order to empower employees, jobs should be designed to challenge employees by promote learning and growth opportunities (Block, 1987; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Overall, I find that employees are more likely to report high levels of psychological empowerment when their jobs contain stressful demands that promote opportunities for learning, growth, and development. Although this research is the first, to my knowledge, to articulate the associations between stressors and empowerment, it is consistent with much of the literature linking job design and empowerment. For instance, Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2000) found a strong association between psychological empowerment and core job characteristics such as task identity and task significance. This dissertation extends this line of inquiry by showing that it is not only how jobs are designed, but how individuals experience the demands of job design, that can influence perceptions of empowerment.

Hypothesis 7 predicts that psychological empowerment will be positively associated with proactive work behaviors. This hypothesis was supported as results from the structural model indicate a positive association between psychological empowerment and PWB. This finding indicates that psychological empowerment represents an active orientation toward work roles (Spreitzer, 1995). Furthermore, these findings suggest that psychological empowerment can

serve as a useful tool to motivate employees to overcome obstacles (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), and demonstrates that empowered employees are likely to be flexible and innovative in their work roles (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The follow-up tests provide further support for the positive relationship between psychological empowerment and proactive work behaviors, as each of the three dimensions of PWB were positively and significantly associated with psychological empowerment. When taken together these results indicate a robust positive association between psychological and behavioral proactivity. These findings provide much needed evidence that helps bring these two perspectives on employee proactivity together. By identifying a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and proactive work behaviors, this research brings these two perspectives together into a more comprehensive account of proactivity at work.

While Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive association between psychological empowerment and positive deviance (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004) in the form of proactive work behaviors, Hypothesis 8 predicts that psychological empowerment will also be positively associated with workplace deviance of the negative variety. Specifically, Hypothesis 8 predicts that psychological empowerment will be positively associated with counterproductive work behaviors. This hypothesis was not supported as the relationship between psychological empowerment and CWB was non-significant. Contrary to my expectations, psychologically empowered individuals were no more prone to engaging in workplace deviance than non-empowered individuals. Although I found no support for a general negative association between psychological empowerment and CWB, follow-up tests revealed a positive association between psychological empowerment and CWBI, but a non-significant relationship between psychological empowerment and CWBO. When taken together, these findings suggest that there

is some credence to my contention that psychological empowerment can encourage negative workplace deviance. In particular, individuals in this sample reporting high levels of psychological empowerment also reported high levels of interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors. Thus in the present sample, psychological empowerment appears to create conditions that may lead empowered individuals to devalue and mistreat others (Kipnis, 1972, 1976; O Neal et al., 1994).

It is possible that heightened perceptions of psychological empowerment induced anxiety and uncertainty, which can trigger counterproductive work behaviors (Rodell & Judge, 2009). When individuals feel anxious, the action tendency is avoidance and escape (Lazarus, 1991), which offers the opportunity to reduce stress and deal with the threats that lead to anxiety (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Therefore, one possible explanation of the positive relationship between psychological empowerment and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors is that psychological empowerment can cause an increased amount of anxiety, which leads individuals to engage in counterproductive work behaviors aimed at other individuals as a means of reducing feelings of anxiety. For example, an employee who experiences a great deal of impact and autonomy at work could psychologically withdrawal from their work relationships as means of coping with increased feelings of anxiety.

The remaining hypotheses concerned the mediating role of psychological empowerment plays in explaining the relationships between challenge and hindrance stressors and proactive and counterproductive work behaviors. Hypothesis 9a, which predicts that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between hindrance stressors and PWB, was supported. Follow-up tests revealed further support for this hypothesis as the indirect effect of psychological empowerment on the relationships between hindrance stressors and each of the

three proposed beneficiary dimensions of PWB were significant. Conversely, Hypothesis 9b, which predicts that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and CWB, was not supported. Moreover, follow-up tests revealed that the indirect effect of psychological empowerment on the relationships between hindrance stressors and each of the two CWB dimensions were not significant.

Similarly, I found support for Hypothesis 10a which predicts that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and PWB and follow-up tests indicated that this relationship holds for each of the three PWB beneficiary dimensions. I found no support for Hypothesis 10b, which predicts that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and CWB. Furthermore, follow-up tests indicate that the indirect effect of psychological empowerment on the relationships between challenge stressors and the two dimensions of CWB were not significant.

When taken in aggregate the results of these mediation tests reveal two very interesting findings regarding the relationships between stressors, empowerment, and ultimately work behaviors. First, I find strong and consistent evidence that psychological empowerment mediates the relationships between both challenge and hindrance stressors and proactive work behavior. In other words, the presence (absence) of challenge (hindrance) stressors provides conditions that are conducive to enhance psychological empowerment, which is then translated into proactive work behaviors. Second, there is little evidence that psychological empowerment helps explain the relationships between challenge and hindrance stressors and CWB. Although there are several possible reasons for this finding, what appears to be driving these findings is the strong direct relationship between hindrance stressors and CWB ($\beta = .51$, $p < .001$). In the present

sample, the primary driver of workplace deviance is the direct effect of hindrance stressors, with psychological empowerment providing little explanation of the relationship between the two.

5.2 Implications for Research and Future Directions

When taken together the results of this dissertation offer several implications for research. First, this research contributes to the on-going efforts to develop and validate a generic measure of proactive work behaviors. To date the majority of these efforts have focused on modeling general proactive work behaviors as an amalgamation of existing measures to capture different content domains of employee proactivity (e.g., Grant et al., 2011; Grant et al., 2009; Parker & Collins, 2010). Although these efforts have been beneficial in developing research models aimed at understanding employee proactivity, they hinder researchers' abilities to draw similarities and differences among proactive work behaviors and other commonly studied work behaviors, such as task, citizenship, and counterproductive. The results of this dissertation lend additional credence to conceptualizing PWB manifest through beneficiary dimensions, as both EFA and CFA results indicate that items align more favorably along beneficiary dimensions than their corresponding content dimensions.

I hope that the development and validation of the PWBS stimulates and encourages other researchers to engage in proactive work behavior research. Future research should extend the use of the PWBS to additional work arrangements. It is possible that working conditions in the non-profit sector provided unique conditions whereby the proposed dimensions of the PWBS are more (or less) orthogonal than they would be in more traditional work arrangements. Thus, the next step in understanding both the measurement of and engagement in proactive work behavior is extending this research to additional settings. Furthermore, proactive work behaviors were considered a dependent variable in the present research; future research could utilize PWB as an

independent variable to answer a host of additional research questions. For example, are individuals who engage in proactive behaviors more likely to: seek alternative employment? Rise to leadership positions? Perform their jobs better? Find their work more meaningful and satisfying? To date, the majority of the proactive work behavior literature has focused on it as an ends rather than a means. It is imperative that future research evaluate not only what predicts proactive work behaviors, but the consequences of these behaviors.

Relatedly, a second research implication that arises from the results of this dissertation flows from the beneficiary dimensions of the PWBS. By aligning the PWBS along beneficiary dimensions, I hope that this offers researchers a new perspective on not only behaviors, but beneficiaries of those behaviors. Much of the existing theorizing on employee behaviors is aimed at understanding why employees engage in certain behaviors. I hope this research encourages researchers to ask new questions about not only the behaviors individuals engage in at work, but at whom they are directed. For instance, future research should consider the differential motivations that lead individuals to engage in self-, other-, or organization-centric behaviors. With the development of the PWBS, researchers now have an additional tool to start asking these research questions. Furthermore, by crafting the PWBS along beneficiary dimensions, it becomes possible to compare them to other work behaviors, which are situated along similar beneficiary dimensions. For example, PWBI, OCBI, and CWBI represent a set of behaviors intended toward others, PWBO, OCBO, and CWBO represent a set of behaviors intended toward the organization as a whole, and PWBP and in-role behavior represent behaviors aimed at an individual's own work tasks.

Future research should seek to understand the different motivations for engaging in these behaviors aimed at different beneficiaries and the conditions that give rise to them. In particular,

the commitment literature has distinguished between similar personal, social, and organizational targets (Becker, 1992; Ellemers, De Gilder, & Van Den Heuvel, 1998). It is likely that individuals with a strong sense of personal commitment to their career are more likely to engage in PWBP, individuals with high levels of work-group commitment are likely to engage in PWBI, and individuals with a strong sense of organizational commitment are more likely to engage in PWBO. Likewise the literature on fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005) offers an intriguing perspective on differentiating between when individuals will behave proactively toward their own job functions (person-job fit), toward colleagues (person-group fit) and toward the organization in general (person-organization fit). These theoretical perspectives, and others, offer great promise to uncover how proactive behaviors are enacted in the workplace, and future research should explore how they influence the intended beneficiaries of proactivity.

Third, by developing a reliable and valid scale to measure proactive work behaviors, I hope to stimulate and encourage additional research aimed at understanding the unique causes and consequences of employee proactivity. In developing the PWBS, I differentiated between three different forms of employee proactivity: personal, interpersonal, and organizational. Although distinguishable from one another, my results indicate that there is a reasonably clear second-order factor structure to the dimensions. In other words, there exists considerable overlap in the three forms of proactive behavior. Results of the CFAs indicate that although the first-order model of proactive behaviors provides better fit than its second-order counterpart, both models provided adequate overall model fit. When empirically evaluating a second-order construct, it is not uncommon for the fit of the first-order model to be better than that of the second-order model. In fact, within this dissertation model the use of second-order constructs for both citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors provided worse model fit than their first-

order models. However, when the fit of the second-order model approaches that of the first-order model, then a reasonable argument can be made for the second-order model on the basis of parsimony (Marsh et al., 2002). Thus, future research could consider using either the first-order factors for a more nuanced view of proactivity, or the second-order factor for a broader perspective on proactive behaviors. More importantly, future research should further assess the comparative fit of the second-order model in additional research settings and with different research models.

Fourth, by bridging the psychological and behavioral perspectives on employee proactivity, this dissertation starts to paint a more complete account of proactivity at work. It is often assumed that proactive psychological conditions, such as psychological empowerment, foster proactive behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) and encourage behaviors that transcend the status quo to improve working conditions; however little research has investigated this possibility. Although enhanced task and citizenship performance are important potential outcomes, employee empowerment risks becoming a fad (Abrahamson, 1991; Block, 1987) unless it explains something unique about human behavior at work. Theory is the basic aim of science (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). It allows scientists to describe and explain a process or sequence of events (DiMaggio, 1995) and to understand and predict outcomes, even if only probabilistically (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). As such, theory is evaluated primarily on its ability to explain the variance of a criterion of interest (Bacharach, 1989). However, there has been little research or guidance regarding what precisely is the criterion of interest with respect to psychological empowerment. In other words, there has been relatively little effort to understand what is unique or novel about psychological empowerment as a motivational construct. Specifically, psychological empowerment is argued to represent an

active orientation to one's work roles (Spreitzer, 1995) and should result in a specific set of discretionary behavior aimed at individual or organizational improvement (Robbins et al., 2002). However, little psychological empowerment research reflects this between psychological proactivity and behavioral proactivity.

To date, psychological empowerment has made great strides at establishing its continuity with other motivational theories; however little progress has been made to understand its novelty. The distinction between continuity and novelty becomes paramount when constructs proliferate in already fragmented disciplines (Barley, 2006; Pfeffer, 1993). When disciplines are fragmented, often redundant constructs arise that either cover equivalent conceptual space or are simply a reformulation of older constructs with new labels (Spell, 2001), which underscores the necessity of novelty. This dissertation represents an important next step in theorizing about psychological empowerment and an initial attempt to indicate what unique behaviors psychological empowerment can describe, explain, and predict. In particular, this research is among the first to document the positive association between psychological empowerment and proactive work behavior.

This dissertation begins this conversation by bridging psychological empowerment and proactive work behaviors. Future research should consider additional psychological conditions that give rise to employee proactivity. Specifically, future research should build on the perspectives of this dissertation and other research linking the conditions that give rise to proactivity and proactivity itself (Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker et al., 2006). With the emergence of the positive organizational scholarship literature (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Roberts, 2006), several new constructs and models of positive behavior are now at researchers disposal to ask new research questions about positive behavior at work. For instance,

future research could consider the how personal engagement (Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010), thriving (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005), and psychological capital (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007) encourage proactive work behaviors. In the end, this research would contribute to a more robust understanding of the dynamics between psychological proactivity and behavioral proactivity.

Fifth, this dissertation contributes to a growing body of literature aimed at understanding how individual conditions give rise to employee proactivity. Although this research has contributed to the field's understanding of the individuals processes that drive employee proactivity, there has been little research to understand environmental conditions favorable to proactivity. Thus future research should consider not only contextual drivers of proactive work behaviors, but how group processes drive some work groups to be more proactive than others. For example, previous research has established leadership style as a salient driver of creative performance (e.g., Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), future research should consider if these same styles of leadership lead to the more general proactive work behavior. Additional interesting research questions lie in the associations between organizational culture and climate and proactive performance. Future research should develop models to articulate how environmental situations and work group characteristics encourage work group proactivity.

Similarly, future research may want to consider how human resource practices, such as High Performance Work Systems (HPWS), can encourage proactive work behaviors. There exists much research indicating a general positive relationship between HPWS and firm performance (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005), however

researchers are still working to fill in the "black box" in this relationship, or how HWPS are converted into improved performance. Recently, several researchers have noted the importance of dynamic capabilities, or a firm's ability to integrate, build, and reconfigure competences to address rapid changes in the environment, in explaining this relationship (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Teece, 2007, 2009). This literature argues that in order for firms to succeed in the contemporary environment firms and their employees must be agile and increase their capacity to learn, generate new assets, and transform existing ones (Teece, 2009). Perhaps an important characteristic of firms with dynamic capabilities is that they encourage their employees to enact their work roles proactively.

Sixth, previous scholars have argued that there may be a dark side to empowerment (Pfeffer et al., 1998), this dissertation presents initial empirical evidence of the potential delirious effects of empowered employees. In the present research, I find that psychological empowerment encourages counterproductive work behaviors aimed at coworkers (i.e., CWBI); future research should consider additional negative implications of psychological empowerment. For example, it is possible that similar mechanisms could drive empowered managers to act aggressively or engage in abusive supervision of subordinates. Likewise, future research should consider the negative implications of work groups that exhibit high levels of collective empowerment. Although much of the group-empowerment literature stresses its benefits, there is some evidence that group empowerment can diminish group outcomes such as adherence to deadlines and delivery targets (Silver, 2000). In the end, a complete understanding of psychological empowerment requires that researchers investigate not only what it helps them do well, but also what it encourages them to do for less noble purposes and less well.

Finally, this dissertation contributes to a large stream of literature that considers psychological empowerment as an explanatory variable between situational antecedents and work outcomes (e.g., Carless, 2004; Ergeneli et al., 2007; Seibert et al., 2004). Although empirical evidence has consistently supported this general model, there is a lack of research that has determined whether such relationships are moderated by other constructs. For instance, it is likely that individual and contextual differences moderate the relationships between hindrance and challenge stressors and psychological empowerment. Emerging research is beginning to document the importance of social support in the appraisal of stressors research (Jackson, Kim, & Delap, 2007). As such, social support may help offset the negative impact of hindrance stressors on psychological empowerment and accentuate the benefits of challenge stressors. Additionally, future research should consider additional moderators of the relationships between psychological empowerment and counterproductive and proactive work behaviors to understand how empowerment initiatives can be utilized to encourage positively deviant behavior, but discourage negatively deviant ones. As an example, Chen et al. (2007) found that high task interdependence accentuated the relationship between empowerment and performance. Future research should investigate similar moderating mechanisms that may explain when psychologically empowered employees engage in behaviors intended to improve conditions and when they engage in behaviors that hinder organizational conditions.

5.3 Implications for Practice

In addition to the implications for management research, this dissertation has some notable implications for managerial practice. First, I hope that the PWBS serves as a useful tool for managers to assess employee behaviors in the contemporary work environment. As work outcomes become increasingly dynamic and uncertain (Griffin et al., 2007), this places an

increased importance on encouraging employees to proactively deal with issues as they arise. The results of this research indicate that, in the current sample, PWB is fairly common. To understand how prevalent PWB is within their work-units, managers should make a concerted effort to diagnose the levels of PWB in their employees. One way to accomplish this task would be to use the PWBS developed in this study to assess the work groups they lead. By understanding the levels of PWB in their employees, managers would better understand the degree to which their employees engage in self-initiated, anticipatory actions designed to change and improve working conditions for themselves and the organization as a whole. The use of an aggregated score on the PWBS would give managers a broad understanding of the degree to which employees engage in proactive behaviors, while the sub-dimension scores would provide managers with a more nuanced view of the types of PWB engaged in by their employees. Research is beginning to accumulate that suggests that many employees readily engage in behaviors designed to improve or enhance the status quo (e.g., Lyons, 2008; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and managers should follow suit by proactively managing their employees' behaviors, rather than being passive recipients of their own employees behaviors.

The second practical implication that can be drawn from this research relates to my findings on psychological empowerment. The vast majority of the psychological empowerment literature points to its beneficial effects. For instance, psychological empowerment has been shown to enhance such outcomes as job satisfaction, in-role performance, and citizenship performance (Seibert et al., 2011; Seibert et al., 2004; Spreitzer, 2008), the present research contributes to this line of inquiry by identifying employee proactivity as a likely outcome of empowered employees. Thus, managers who desire their employees to improve working

conditions should focus on creating an environment that is characterized by high degrees of meaning, competence, autonomy, and impact. Previous research has identified several pathways to accomplishing this objective including empowering human resource practices (Spreitzer, 1996), fostering an empowering work climate (Seibert et al., 2004), and leading in a way that is supportive and trusting (Seibert et al., 2011). In the present research, I identify the management of stressors as additional means by which employees may feel empowered or disempowered. Specifically, managers who wish to empower their employees should focus their efforts on promoting opportunities for goal achievement, learning and development (i.e., challenge stressors) and limiting activities that hinder progress toward goal attainment or task accomplishment (i.e., hindrance stressors) (LePine et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). In short, the present research suggests that managers can empower employees by providing challenging and meaningful job tasks, while minimizing daily hassles, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

The third practical implication of this dissertation relates to the potential dark side of psychological empowerment. Although the majority of research, including the present research, has identified numerous benefits of psychological empowerment, this dissertation also provides some evidence that empowered employees can behave counterproductively. In particular, I find that psychological empowerment is positively related to counterproductive behaviors aimed at their co-workers. Thus, management should be aware of the potential double-edged sword of empowerment highlighted in this research. On the one hand, empowered employees break the status quo to engage in behaviors aimed at improving conditions, but on the other hand it may encourage employees to engage in behaviors aimed to change the status quo for the worse. Managers should carefully consider the desirability of both the bright and potential dark sides of

psychological empowerment, and understand that although empowered employees may exhibit enhanced performance, it may come at the expense of some degree of workplace deviance. To address these potentially deleterious effects of employee empowerment, managers should consider broader empowerment initiatives that focus not only on empowering individual employees, but on empowering the larger work group (Chen et al., 2007; Seibert et al., 2004). By focusing empowerment initiatives on groups of employees, managers can create a supportive social structure that mitigates against potential employee deviance (Hershcovis et al., 2007) that may arise from a sense of psychological empowerment.

5.4 Limitations

Although the present dissertation contributed to existing scholarship in a number of important ways, it is not without limitations. First, the extent to which my findings would generalize to other populations is unknown. This sample was drawn exclusively from employees in the non-profit sector, and it is unclear whether a similar pattern of results would be achieved in populations taken from other work settings. For instance, pro-socially and intrinsically motivated individuals often seek employment in non-profit organizations (Tidwell, 2005; Voss, Cable, & Voss, 2000); thus, it is possible that these motivations, which are conducive to proactive work behavior, influenced the relationships found in this study. Furthermore, non-profit organizations are often characterized as highly organic organizational structures (Schmid, 1995). It is possible that the low levels of formalization and wide spans of control provided employees greater opportunity to engage in proactive work behaviors. Although there is no reason to expect that characteristics of the sample drove the relationships uncovered in this dissertation, future research should evaluate the psychometric properties of the PWBS in additional work settings. Furthermore, future research should consider the implications of assessing the relationships

among proactive work behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors, psychological empowerment, and stressors in different work settings. Extending the present research to additional research settings would strengthen the conclusions of this dissertation.

Second, this dissertation relies on self-report assessments, which raises the possibility that relationships could be inflated due to common-method variance. The potential for common-method bias is more of an issue in the second part of this dissertation, where I investigate the relationships among stressors, psychological empowerment, and work behaviors. The conclusions drawn from this research could be strengthened through the use of independent assessments of employee perceptions (e.g., stressors and psychological empowerment) and work performance (e.g., counterproductive and proactive work behavior). Although it is impossible to determine the degree to which common-method variance influenced the findings of this dissertation, this concern is somewhat tempered by the nature of the study and the subsequent findings. For instance, I was able to identify that challenge stressors were positively related to psychological empowerment, whereas hindrance stressors were negatively related. Same source data would have been a much larger concern had a similar pattern of results emerged for the relationships between psychological empowerment and both types of stressors. Furthermore, the tests of mediation were dependent on a fairly complex pattern of relationships among variables that would be difficult to explain by common source variance alone. Finally, the finding that psychological empowerment was positively associated with CWBI further tempers concerns over common method variance driving the results of this dissertation. If participants were attempting to present a consistent positive self-image, it is likely that they would report high levels of psychological empowerment and low levels of CWBI, resulting in a negative relationship. These considerations aside, same source data remains a limitation of this dissertation and future

research should consider collecting data from independent sources or through the use of multitrait-multimethod approach (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

The use of self-reports also presents some additional considerations for the PWBS development portion of this dissertation. Specifically, both EFA and CFA results indicate that participants were able to differentiate between the proposed dimensions of PWB. What remains unclear is whether third-party observers (e.g., supervisors) can meaningfully differentiate different dimensions of proactive work behaviors. In this regard, self-assessments may have actually provided an advantage since individuals have constant access to their own behaviors and can potentially detect differences to a greater degree than external raters (Lance, Teachout, & Donnelly, 1992). In this research the use of self-reports could have reduced the likelihood of 'halo' effects, where external raters often draw a general impression across different attitudes and behaviors (Lance, LaPointe, & Stewart, 1994). Nevertheless, future research should investigate whether external raters are able to differentiate between personal, interpersonal, and organizational proactive work behaviors to a similar degree to self-assessments. Furthermore, the self-reported data used in this dissertation identified a clear differentiation between PWB, CWB, OCB, and in-role behaviors. Future research should investigate whether third parties can make similar distinctions.

Third, this dissertation is also limited by its cross-sectional design. Again, this limitation primarily concerns the findings with respect to the psychological empowerment portion of this dissertation. Although the majority of research on psychological empowerment is cross-sectional, including this dissertation, much of the theoretical underpinnings suggest that empowerment is a dynamic, emergent state (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The cross-sectional design utilized in this dissertation hinders my ability to draw

conclusions regarding causality in my research model. Future research should consider employing longitudinal designs, experience-sampling, within-subject designs and the use of multi-level modeling to develop and test models capturing the variance in psychological empowerment over time. Moreover, the psychological empowerment literature is rife with correlational studies, but there exists little experimental research aimed at understanding the causal relations between psychological empowerment and its causes and consequences.

Indeed, proactivity is often described as a dynamic process (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2006), yet little is known about the temporal dynamics of employee proactivity. This dissertation is consistent with previous theoretical and empirical research, which considers proactive behavior as an outcome of proactive conditions, in this case psychological empowerment. However it is also plausible that engaging in proactive behaviors can heighten an individual's sense of psychological empowerment. For instance, when success is achieved though the enactment of proactive work behaviors, individuals are likely to find their work more meaningful, develop a greater sense competence, perceive autonomous control over their work tasks, and believe that their efforts can influence organizational outcomes. This depiction of proactivity as a dynamic process is consistent Bandura's (1986) triadic reciprocal causation model, where personal factors, the environment and behaviors share mutual influence over one another. Thus it is likely that the psychological and behavioral perspectives feed into each other in a spiral of proactivity, much like the performance-efficacy spirals depicted in social cognitive research (Lindsley, Brass, & Thomas, 1995). Nevertheless, future research should consider experimental designs to tease apart the temporal dynamics of relationships such as those uncovered here to determine the order of causality.

5.5 Conclusion

This dissertation attempts to bridge the divide between psychological and behavioral perspectives on proactivity at work in a number of important ways. First, I developed a new measure of general proactive work behavior (PWBS). Second, I differentiated proactive work behaviors from task, citizenship, and counterproductive work behaviors. Third, I developed and tested a theoretical model that places psychological empowerment as the mediating mechanism between stressors and work behavior. The results provide strong evidence that psychological empowerment helps explain the relationships between hindrance and challenge stressors and proactive work behavior, but not counterproductive work behavior. In the end, I hope this dissertation increases the fields understanding of proactivity at work and promotes further research on its causes, consequences, and implications.

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APPENDIX A – TABLES

Table 1 - Pattern Matrix from Principal Components Analysis

	Component		
	1 (PWBO)	2 (PWBI)	3 (PWBP)
Proactive Work Behavior Personal (PWBP)			
In my assigned work role, I actively attack problems.			.54
I do more than I am asked to do in accomplishing my work tasks.			.86
I am particularly good at realizing ideas that will help me perform my tasks more effectively.			.91
I keep well informed about issues that affect my performance.			.86
I speak up about issues that affect my performance.			.65
I communicate my opinion about work issues to others, even if my opinion is different and others disagree with me.			.48
I adopt improved procedures for doing my job.			.67
I try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective.			.59
I try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures in my assigned work tasks.			.48
I generate creative ideas that allow me to perform my job more efficiently.			.65
I am innovative in accomplishing my assigned task responsibilities.			.69
I come up with new ideas to improve upon my assigned duties.			.66
Proactive Work Behavior Interpersonal (PWBI)			
Whenever something goes wrong in my work group, I search for a solution immediately.		.66	
I use opportunities quickly in order to help my work group attain its goals.		.60	
I encourage others in my work group to do more than is required of them.		.66	
I get involved in issues to enhance the quality of work life in my work group.		.80	
I encourage others in my work group to speak up and get involved in issues that affect group performance.		.84	
I support individuals in my workgroup when they speak up about issues that affect the work group, even when others may disagree them.		.89	
I try to bring about improved procedures for my work group.		.76	
I make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within my work group.		.72	
I try to introduce new structures, techniques, or approaches to improve the efficiency of my work group.		.55	
I assist others in my work group develop and improve upon their creative ideas.		.77	
When a coworker has a new and useful idea, I help them promote and champion it.		.88	
I encourage others in my work group to seek innovative solutions to work group issues.		.84	

(continued)

Table 1 – Pattern Matrix from Principal Components Analysis (continued)

	Component		
	1 (PWBO)	2 (PWBP)	3 (PWBI)
Proactive Work Behavior Organizational (PWBO)			
Whenever there is a chance to get actively involved in my agency, I take it.	.48		
I take immediate action to solve agency problems even when others don't.	.71		
When things go wrong for my agency, I try to find the root cause to prevent reoccurring problems.	.82		
I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the agency as a whole.	.88		
I speak up about new projects or changes in procedures that affect the agency as a whole.	.81		
I keep well informed about agency issues where my opinion might be useful.	.75		
I try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the agency as a whole.	.84		
I try to change agency rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.	.79		
I attempt to implement solutions to pressing agency problems.	.94		
I search out new technologies, processes, techniques, and or product ideas to improve agency effectiveness.	.88		
I help my agency develop plans and schedules for the implementation of new and useful ideas.	.96		
I have creative ideas to improve agency functioning.	.72		
Eigenvalue	16.24	4.22	1.82
Percentage of Variance	45.10	11.74	5.07
Cumulative Percentage of Variance	45.10	56.84	61.90

Notes: $N = 211$. Factor Loadings < .40 are not presented.

Table 2 - Principal Components Analysis Correlation Matrix

	Component	1	2	3
1	PWBO	1.00		
2	PWBI	.54	1.00	
3	PWBP	.47	.69	1.00

Table 3 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Comparisons

Model	Description	$\chi 2$	*df*	$\Delta\chi 2$	Δdf	*p*	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% CI	CFI	NNFI
1.	Hypothesized beneficiary model where PWBP, PWBI, and PWBO are distinct, albeit correlated	1400.49	591	--	--	--	0.080	.075-.086	0.966	0.964
2.	Beneficiary model where PWBP, PWBI, and PWBO form a single factor	2620.21	594	1219.72	3	<0.001	0.127	.122-.132	0.916	0.911
3.	Beneficiary model where PWBP and PWBI form a single factor	1785.67	593	385.18	2	<0.001	0.097	.092-.103	0.951	0.947
4.	Beneficiary model where PWBP and PWBO form a single factor	2174.50	593	774.01	2	<0.001	0.112	.107-.117	0.934	0.930
5.	Beneficiary model where PWBI and PWBO form a single factor	2069.14	593	668.65	2	<0.001	0.108	.103-.113	0.939	0.935
6.	Content model where personal initiative, voice, taking charge, and individual innovation are distinct, albeit correlated	2554.23	588	--	--	--	0.126	.121-.131	0.919	0.913

Note: $N = 212$. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = non-normed fit index.

Table 4 - Higher-order Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

	Equated Estimates				Standardized			
Indicator	*Loading*	*SE*	*Intercept*	*SE*	*Loading*	*SE*	*Theta*	R^2
PWBP								
1	1*	--	5.66	.07	.48	.06	.77	.23
2	1.31	.17	5.68	.07	.61	.05	.63	.37
3	1.62	.22	5.47	.08	.70	.05	.51	.49
4	1.19	.19	5.43	.07	.54	.06	.71	.29
5	1.37	.24	5.29	.09	.53	.06	.72	.28
6	1.31	.24	5.23	.09	.46	.07	.79	.21
7	1.42	.20	5.51	.07	.67	.04	.55	.45
8	1.90	.26	5.34	.09	.72	.05	.48	.53
9	2.01	.27	5.21	.10	.69	.04	.52	.48
10	2.22	.31	5.27	.08	.88	.02	.24	.77
11	2.09	.29	5.28	.08	.87	.03	.24	.76
12	2.30	.33	5.18	.09	.85	.03	.28	.72
PWBI								
1	1*	--	5.46	.08	.55	.06	.70	.30
2	1.08	.10	5.30	.07	.64	.05	.60	.40
3	1.65	.23	4.32	.10	.67	.04	.55	.45
4	1.66	.22	4.74	.09	.74	.04	.46	.54
5	1.69	.25	4.92	.10	.70	.04	.52	.48
6	1.35	.22	5.34	.08	.68	.04	.54	.46
7	1.77	.24	4.97	.09	.81	.03	.35	.65
8	1.73	.26	5.01	.09	.81	.03	.34	.66
9	2.04	.28	4.84	.10	.85	.02	.29	.72
10	1.69	.21	4.93	.09	.81	.03	.34	.66
11	1.50	.20	5.07	.08	.76	.03	.42	.58
12	1.86	.24	4.80	.09	.82	.03	.33	.67
PWBO								
1	1*	--	4.24	.10	.66	.05	.57	.43
2	1.25	.11	3.85	.10	.79	.03	.38	.63
3	1.34	.12	3.86	.11	.79	.03	.38	.63
4	1.49	.14	3.60	.11	.86	.03	.27	.73
5	1.46	.13	3.76	.11	.86	.02	.27	.73
6	1.25	.13	4.02	.11	.75	.04	.43	.57
7	1.46	.13	3.80	.11	.82	.04	.32	.68
8	1.40	.14	3.08	.11	.80	.03	.37	.63
9	1.58	.15	3.42	.12	.88	.02	.23	.77
10	1.47	.15	3.20	.11	.83	.03	.32	.68
11	1.51	.15	3.18	.11	.85	.03	.29	.72
12	1.32	.16	4.01	.12	.73	.04	.47	.53
PWB	Estimated Latent Variance (SE) = .12 (.03)							
PWBP	1*	--			.70	.05	.51	.50
PWBI	1.76	.35			.99	.04	.02	.98
PWBO	1.82	.32			.67	.05	.55	.45

Notes: N = 212. PWBP = proactive work behavior personal; PWBI = proactive work behavior interpersonal; PWBO = proactive work behavior organizational.

Table 5 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis Correlation Matrix

	Component	1	2	3
1	PWBP	1.00		
2	PWBO	.41***	1.00	
3	PWBI	.60***	.75***	1.00

Notes: N = 212. PWBP = proactive work behavior personal; PWBI = proactive work behavior interpersonal; PWBO = proactive work behavior organizational

*** $p < .001$.

Table 6 - Principal Components Analysis of Behavior Parcels

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
IRB								
Parcel 1						.92		
Parcel 2						.75		
Parcel 3						.89		
OCBI								
Parcel 1					.86			
Parcel 2					.81			
Parcel 3					.87			
OCBO								
Parcel 1				.81				
Parcel 2				.91				
Parcel 3				.91				
PWBP								
Parcel 1		.82						
Parcel 2		.61						
Parcel 3		.83						
Parcel 4		.82						
PWBI								
Parcel 1			.75					
Parcel 2			.97					
Parcel 3			.71					
Parcel 4			.77					
PWBO								
Parcel 1	.75							
Parcel 2	.86							
Parcel 3	.96							
Parcel 4	.96							
CWBI								
Parcel 1								.84
Parcel 2								.73
Parcel 3								.87
CWBO								
Parcel 1							.85	
Parcel 2							.89	
Parcel 3							.78	

Notes: N = 423. Factor Loadings < .40 are not presented.

Table 7 - First-order Factor Loadings, Intercepts, R^2, and Estimated Latent Variance

	Equated Estimates				Standardized [a]			
Indicator	*Loading*	*SE*	*Intercept*	*SE*	*Loading*	*SE*	*Theta*	R^2
IRB								
Parcel 1	1*	--	6.27	.03	.89	.03	.20	.80
Parcel 2	.99	.07	6.06	.04	.75	.03	.44	.56
Parcel 3	1.21	.09	6.03	.04	.77	.04	.41	.59
OCBI								
Parcel 1	1*	--	5.81	.04	.80	.02	.36	.64
Parcel 2	.95	.05	5.66	.04	.79	.03	.37	.63
Parcel 3	1.05	.06	5.79	.04	.82	.03	.33	.67
OCBO								
Parcel 1	1*	--	5.10	.05	.85	.02	.28	.72
Parcel 2	1.08	.05	5.22	.05	.89	.02	.20	.80
Parcel 3	.87	.05	5.69	.05	.78	.03	.39	.62
PWBP								
Parcel 1	1*	--	5.56	.04	.79	.02	.38	.62
Parcel 2	.98	.07	5.38	.05	.69	.03	.53	.47
Parcel 3	1.15	.07	5.37	.05	.79	.02	.38	.62
Parcel 4	1.35	.07	5.25	.06	.84	.02	.30	.70
PWBI								
Parcel 1	1*	--	5.00	.05	.82	.02	.33	.67
Parcel 2	1.16	.05	5.06	.06	.82	.02	.32	.68
Parcel 3	1.34	.06	5.02	.06	.88	.01	.22	.78
Parcel 4	1.27	.05	4.97	.06	.85	.02	.27	.73
PWBO								
Parcel 1	1*	--	4.00	.07	.82	.02	.33	.67
Parcel 2	1.24	.04	3.84	.07	.92	.01	.16	.85
Parcel 3	1.27	.05	3.38	.07	.92	.01	.16	.84
Parcel 4	1.19	.05	3.43	.07	.86	.01	.26	.74
CWBI								
Parcel 1	1*	--	1.82	.04	.79	.03	.38	.62
Parcel 2	.49	.05	1.30	.02	.66	.04	.57	.43
Parcel 3	.49	.04	1.24	.02	.73	.04	.46	.54
CWBO								
Parcel 1	1*	--	1.64	.02	.77	.03	.40	.60
Parcel 2	1.54	.12	2.00	.03	.82	.03	.33	.67
Parcel 3	1.55	.12	2.05	.04	.72	.03	.48	.52

[a] Common metric completely standardized solution.

Table 8 - First-order Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. IRB	6.09	0.68	(.84)							
2. OCBI	5.75	0.69	.46***	(.80)						
3. OCBO	5.30	0.97	.25***	.46***	(.88)					
4. PWBP	5.40	0.87	.44***	.48***	.50***	(.91)				
5. PWBI	5.02	1.02	.29***	.50***	.53***	.81***	(.94)			
6. PWBO	3.68	1.35	.08	.28***	.61***	.54***	.65***	(.96)		
7. CWBI	1.45	0.42	-.07	.00	-.03	.10	.12*	.17**	(.72)	
8. CWBO	1.87	0.55	-.06	-.05	-.29***	-.05	.03	-.07	.59***	(.78)

Notes: $N = 423$. Values on the diagonal are coefficient αs for scale scores.
*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 9 - Work Behavior Nested Model Comparisons

Model	Description	$\chi 2$	*df*	$\Delta\chi 2$	Δdf	*p*	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% CI	CFI	NNFI
1.	First Order - Model with eight distinct, albeit correlated, factors	589.59	296	--	--	--	0.048	.043-.054	0.982	0.979
2.	Second Order - Model with eight first-order factors, and three second-order factors	751.65	313	162.06	17	<0.001	0.058	.052-.063	0.973	0.970
3.	Second Order - Model in which PWB and in-role behavior load on a common second-order factor	773.65	315	22.00	2	<0.001	0.059	.053-.064	0.972	0.969
4.	Second Order - Model in which PWB and OCB load on a common second-order factor	772.00	315	20.35	2	<0.001	0.059	.053-.064	0.972	0.969
5.	Second Order - Model in which PWB and CWB load on a common second-order factor	856.42	315	104.77	2	<0.001	0.064	.059-.069	0.967	0.963
6.	Second Order - Model in which PWB, in-role behavior, OCB, and CWB load on a common second-order factor	864.73	316	113.09	3	<0.001	0.064	.059-.069	0.967	0.963

Notes: $N = 423$. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = non-normed fit index.

Table 10 - Second-order Factor Loadings, R2, and Estimated Latent Variance

	Equated Estimates		Standardized [a]			
Indicator	*Loading*	*SE*	*Loading*	*SE*	*Theta*	R^2
OCB	Estimated Latent Variance (SE) = .24 (.03)					
OCBI	1*	--	.73	.04	.47	.53
OCBO	1*	--	.57	.03	.68	.32
PWB	Estimated Latent Variance (SE) = .37 (.04)					
PWBP	1*	--	.85	.03	.27	.73
PWBI	1.26	.08	.95	.02	.11	.89
PWBO	1.23	.09	.68	.03	.54	.46
CWB	Estimated Latent Variance (SE) = .12 (.02)					
CWBI	1*	--	.62	.04	.61	.39
CWBO	1*	--	.95	.04	.10	.91

[a] Common metric completely standardized solution.

Table 11 – Higher-order Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4
1. IRB	6.09	0.68	(.84)			
2. OCB	5.52	0.70	.55***	(.87)		
3. PWB	4.70	0.93	.34***	.82***	(.96)	
4. CWB	1.70	0.43	-.07	-.21**	.02	(.82)

Notes: $N = 423$. Values on the diagonal are coefficient αs for scale scores.

*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 12 - Second-order Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Hindrance stressors	2.58	.78	(.68)				
2. Challenge stressors	3.07	.92	.49**	(.91)			
3. Psychological empowerment	5.51	.77	-.35**	-.01	(.86)		
4. PWB	4.70	.93	.02	.19**	.63**	(.96)	
5. CWB	1.70	.43	.51**	.27**	-.16**	.01	(.82)

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 13 - First-order Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	Mean	s.d.	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8
1. Hindrance stressors	2.58	.78	(.68)														
2. Challenge stressors	3.07	.92	.49	**	(.91)												
3. Psychological empowerment	5.51	.77	-.35	**	-.02		(.86)										
4. PWBP	5.37	.87	-.03		.11	*	.65	**	(.91)								
5. PWBI	5.02	1.02	.03		.17	**	.55	**	.81	**	(.94)						
6. PWBO	3.68	1.35	-.01		.23	**	.44	**	.54	**	.65	**	(.96)				
7. CWBI	1.45	.42	.16	**	.23	**	.11		.10	*	.12	*	.17	**	(.72)		
8. CWBO	1.87	.55	.54	**	.27	**	-.19	**	-.05		.03		-.07		.59	**	(.78)

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 14 - Second-order Model Indirect Effects

Independent Variable	Mediator Variable	Dependent Variable	Indirect effect	*SE*
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWB	-.32	.06***
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	CWB	-.01	.03
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWB	.15	.05**
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	CWB	.00	.01

*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 15 - First-order Model Indirect Effects

Independent Variable	Mediator Variable	Dependent Variable	Indirect effect	*SE*
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWBP	-.33	.06***
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWBI	-.28	.05***
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWBO	-.21	.05***
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	CWBI	-.07	.04
Hindrance Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	CWBO	.00	.03
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWBP	.15	.05**
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWBI	.13	.04**
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	PWBO	.09	.03**
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	CWBI	.03	.02
Challenge Stressors	Psychological Empowerment	CWBO	.00	.01

*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 16 - Summary of Hypotheses

	Description	Supported
H1	Personal, interpersonal, and organizational proactive work behaviors will be distinct from each other.	Yes
H2	Personal, interpersonal, and organizational proactive work behaviors will together identify a higher-order category of proactive work behavior.	Yes
H3	Proactive work behaviors manifest through beneficiary dimensions will provide improved model fit over proactive work behaviors manifest through content dimensions.	Yes
H4	Task behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors, and proactive work behaviors will be distinct from each other.	Yes
H5	Hindrance stressors are negatively associated with psychological empowerment.	Yes
H6	Challenge stressors are positively associated with psychological empowerment.	Yes
H7	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with PWB.	Yes
	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with PWBP.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with PWBI.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with PBWO.	*Yes*
H8	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with CWB.	No
	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with CWBI.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment is positively associated with CWBO.	*No*
H9a	Psychological empowerment meditates the relationship between hindrance stressors and PWB.	Yes
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and PWBP.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and PWBI.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and PWBO.	*Yes*
H9b	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and CWB.	No
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and CWBI.	*No*
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between hindrance stressors and CWBO.	*No*
H10a	Psychological empowerment meditates the relationship between challenge stressors and PWB.	Yes
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and PWBP.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and PWBI.	*Yes*
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and PWBO.	*Yes*
H10b	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and CWB.	No
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and CWBI.	*No*
	Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between challenge stressors and CWBO.	*No*

APPENDIX B – FIGURES

Figure 1 - Work Behavior Model

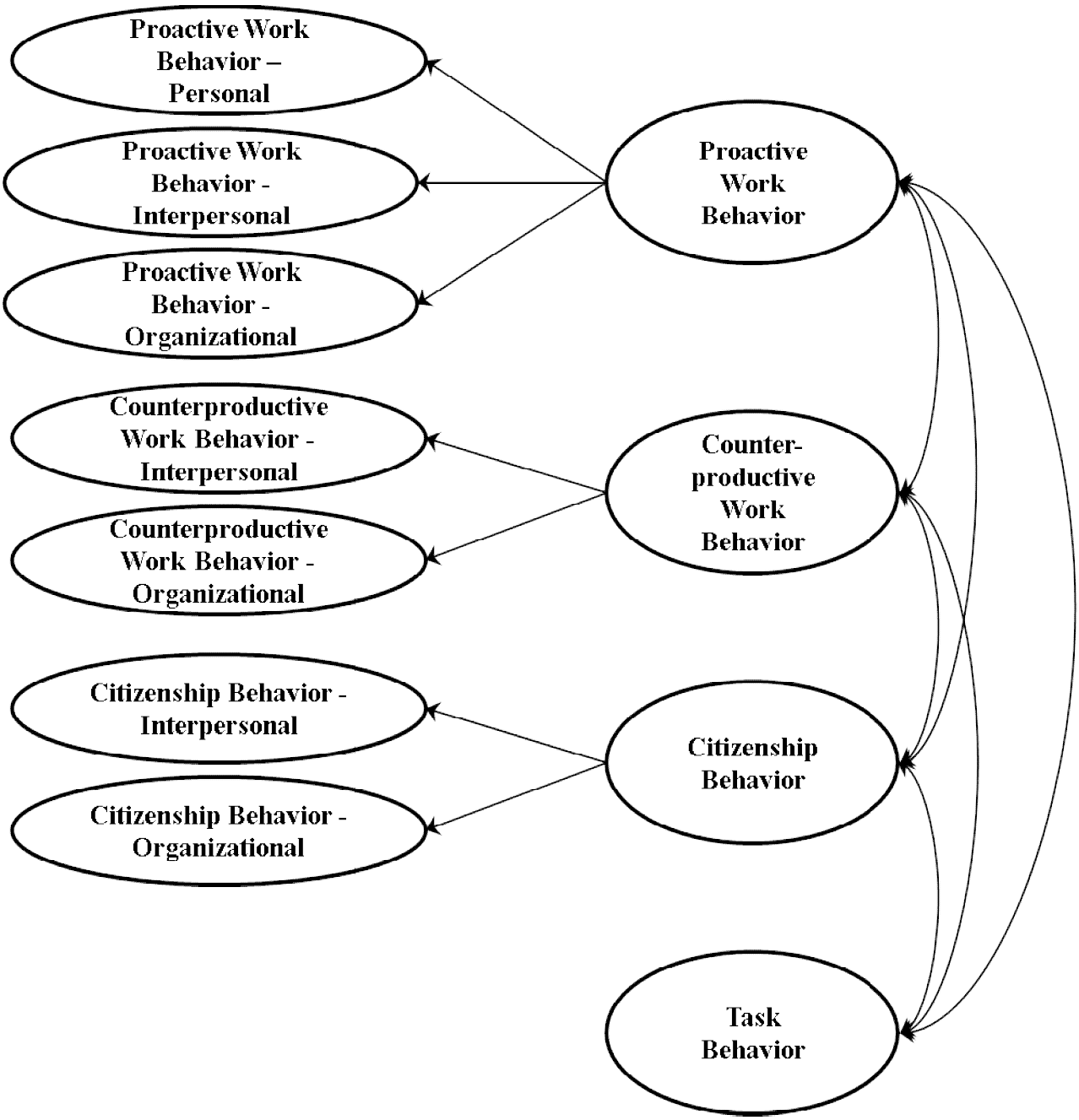


Figure 2 - Psychological Empowerment Research Model

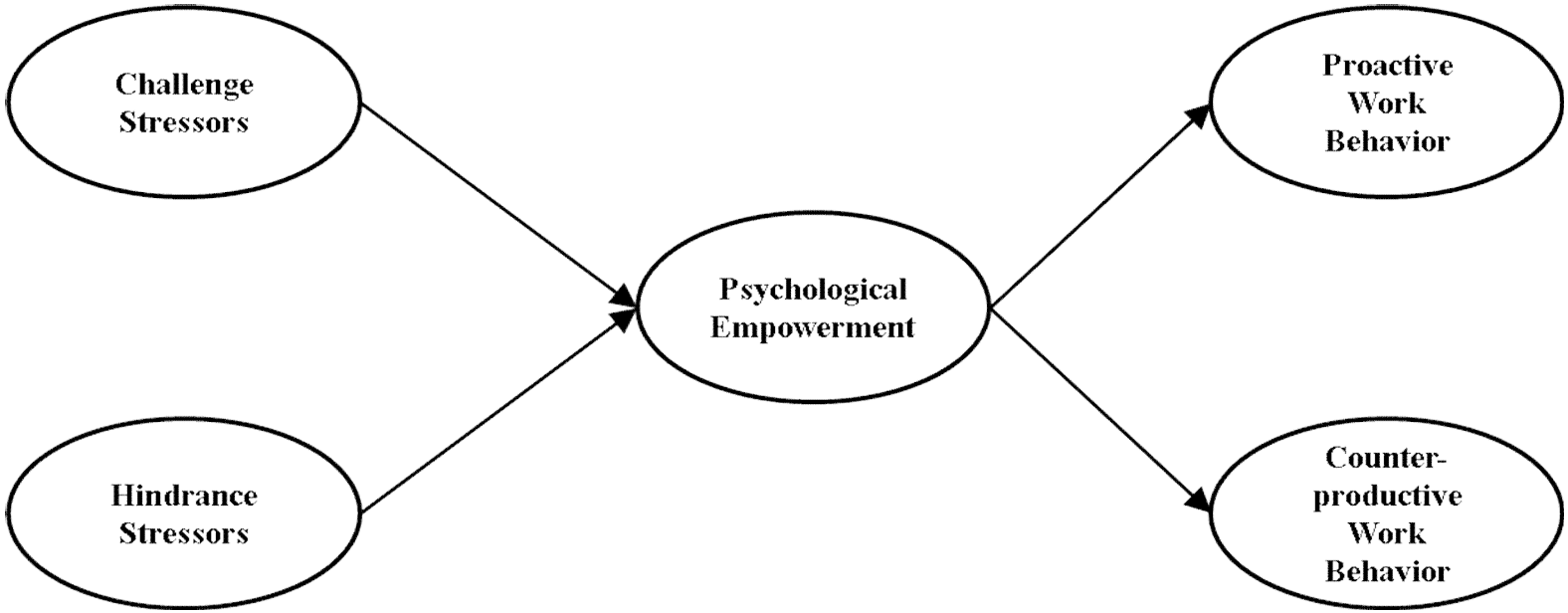
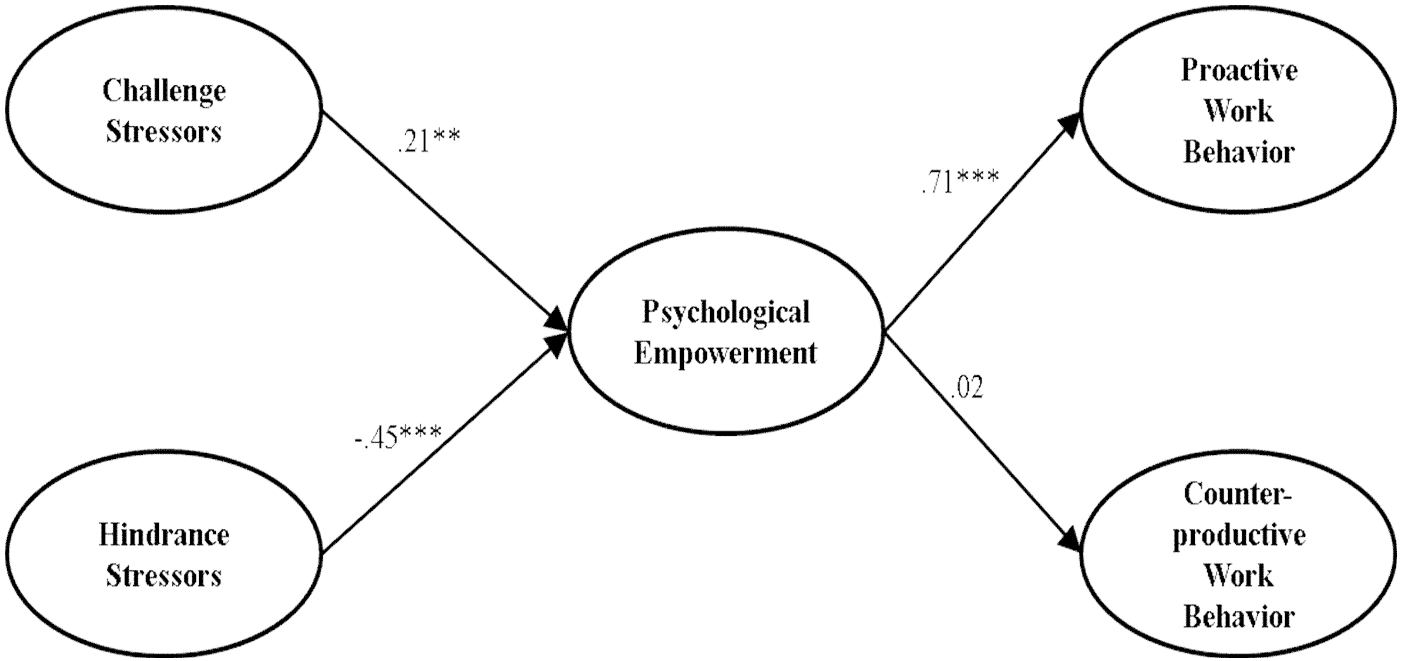
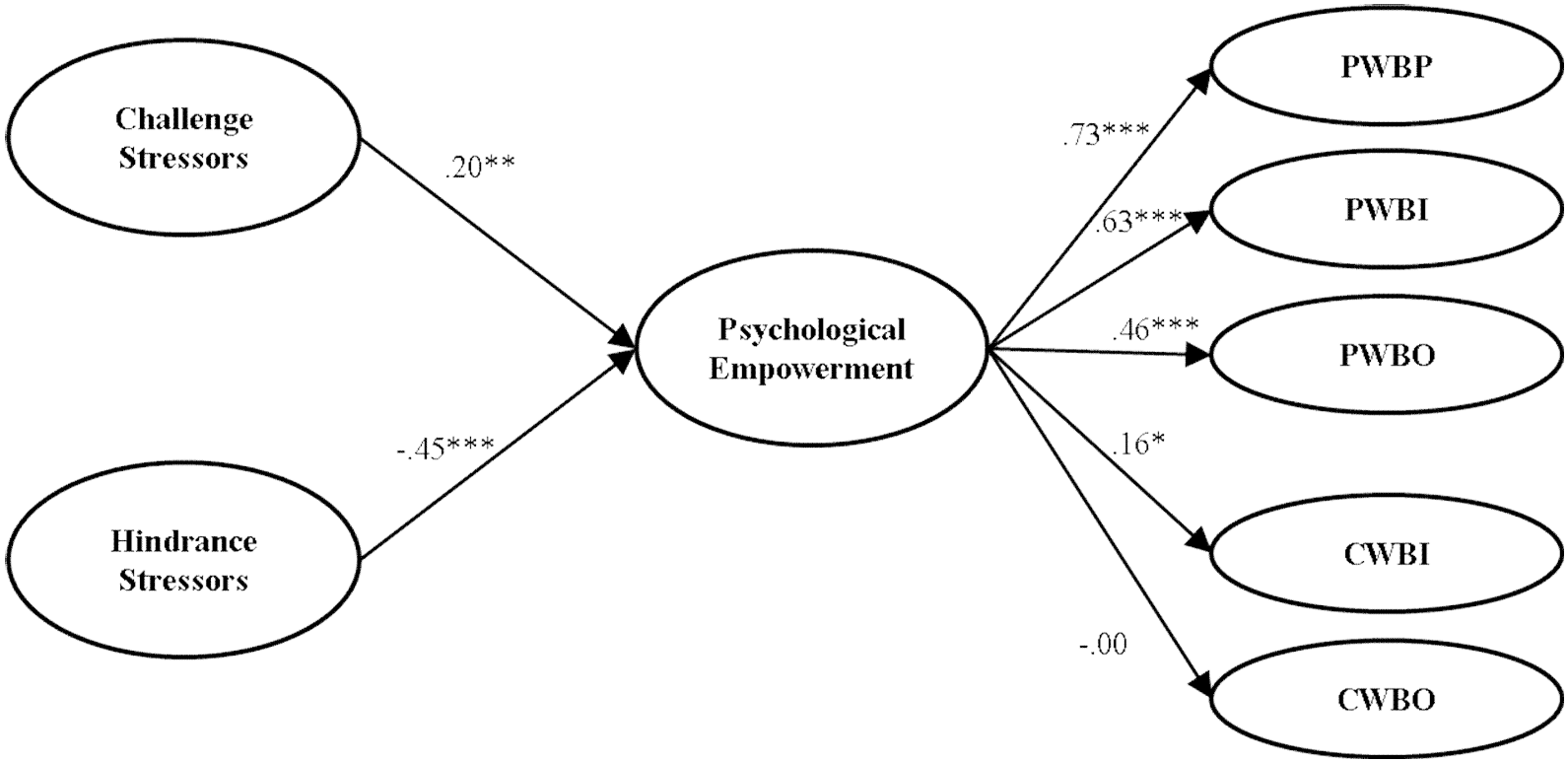


Figure 3 - Higher-order Research Model Results



*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Figure 4 - First-order Research Model Results



*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

APPENDIX C – SURVEY ITEMS

Self-Rated Items

Psychological Empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. The work I do is very important to me (meaning).
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me (meaning).
3. The work I do is meaningful to me (meaning).
4. I am confident about my ability to do my job (competence).
5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities (competence).
6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job (competence).
7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job (self-determination).
8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work (self-determination).
9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job (self-determination).
10. My impact on what happens in my department is large (impact).
11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (impact).
12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department (impact).

Stressors (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; 1 = *no stress* to 5 = *a great deal of stress*)

1. The number of projects or assignments I have (challenge).
2. The amount of time I spend at work (challenge).
3. The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time (challenge).
4. Time pressures that I experience (challenge).
5. The amount of responsibility I have (challenge).

6. The scope of responsibility my position entails (challenge).
7. The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions (hindrance).
8. The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job (hindrance).
9. The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done (hindrance).
10. The lack of job security I have (hindrance).
11. The degree to which my career seems "stalled" (hindrance).

In-role behaviors (Williams and Anderson, 1991; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*).

1. I adequately complete my assigned duties.
2. I fulfill responsibilities specified in my job description.
3. I perform tasks that are expected of me.
4. I meet form performance requirements of my job.
5. I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.

Citizenship Behaviors (Lee and Allen, 2000; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*).

1. I help others who have been absent (OCBI).
2. I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems (OCBI).
3. I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off (OCBI).
4. I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group (OCBI).
5. I show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business and personal situations (OCBI).
6. I give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems (OCBI).

7. I assist others with their duties (OCBI).
8. I share personal property with others to help their work (OCBI).
9. I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image (OCBO).
10. I keep up with developments in the organization (OCBO).
11. I defend the organization when other employees criticize it (OCBO).
12. I show pride when representing the organization in public (OCBO).
13. I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization (OCBO).
14. I express loyalty toward the organization (OCBO).
15. I take action to protect the organization from potential problems (OCBO).
16. I demonstrate concern about the image of the organization (OCBO).

Counterproductive Work Behavior (Fox and Spector, 1999; 1 = *never*; 7 = *extremely often*)

1. Purposely wasted company materials / supplies (CWBO).
2. Daydreamed rather than did your work (CWBO).
3. Purposely ignored your boss (CWBO).
4. Complained about insignificant things at work (CWBO).
5. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work (CWBO).
6. Purposely did your work incorrectly (CWBO).
7. Felt good when something went wrong (CWBO).
8. Seriously considered quitting your job (CWBO).
9. Purposely came to work or came back from lunch breaks late (CWBO).
10. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you were not (CWBO).
11. Purposely did not work hard when there were things to be done (CWBO).

12. Failed to help a coworker (CWBI).
13. Withheld work-related information from a coworker (CWBI).
14. Played a practical joke on someone at work (CWBI).
15. Purposely interfered with someone else doing their job (CWBI).
16. Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work (CWBI).
17. Blamed coworkers for errors that you made (CWBI).
18. Started an argument with someone at work (CWBI).
19. Been nasty to a fellow worker (CWBI).

Proactive Work Behavior (Developed for this study; 1 = never to 7 = extremely often)

Personal (PWBP)

1. In my assigned work role, I actively attack problems (PI).
2. I do more than I am asked to do in accomplishing my work tasks (PI).
3. I am particularly good at realizing ideas that will help me perform my tasks more effectively (PI).
4. I keep well informed about issues that affect my performance (V).
5. I speak up about issues that affect my performance (V).
6. I communicate my opinion about work issues to others, even if my opinion is different and others disagree with me (V).
7. I adopt improved procedures for doing my job (TC).
8. I try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective (TC).
9. I try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures in my assigned work tasks (TC).
10. I generate creative ideas that allow me to perform my job more efficiently (I).

11. I am innovative in accomplishing my assigned task responsibilities (I).

12. I come up with new ideas to improve upon my assigned duties (I).

Interpersonal (PWBI)

1. Whenever something goes wrong in my work group, I search for a solution immediately (PI).
2. I use opportunities quickly in order to help my work group attain its goals (PI).
3. I encourage others in my work group to do more than is required of them (PI).
4. I get involved in issues to enhance the quality of work life in my work group (V).
5. I encourage others in my work group to speak up and get involved in issues that affect group performance (V).
6. I support individuals in my workgroup when they speak up about issues that affect the work group, even when others may disagree them (V).
7. I try to bring about improved procedures for my work group (TC).
8. I make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within my work group (TC).
9. I try to introduce new structures, techniques, or approaches to improve the efficiency of my work group (TC).
10. I assist others in my work group develop and improve upon their creative ideas (I).
11. When a coworker has a new and useful idea, I help them promote and champion it (I).
12. I encourage others in my work group to seek innovative solutions to work group issues (I)

Organizational (PWBO)

1. Whenever there is a chance to get actively involved in my organization, I take it (PI).
2. I take immediate action to solve organizational problems even when others don't (PI).

3. When things go wrong for my organization, I try to find the root cause to prevent reoccurring problems (PI).
4. I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the organization as a whole (V).
5. I speak up about new projects or changes in procedures that affect the organization as a whole (V).
6. I keep well informed about organizational issues where my opinion might be useful (V).
7. I try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the organization as a whole (TC).
8. I try to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive (TC).
9. I attempt to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems (TC).
10. I search out new technologies, processes, techniques, and or product ideas to improve organizational effectiveness (I).
11. I help my organization develop plans and schedules for the implementation of new and useful ideas (I).
12. I have creative ideas to improve organizational functioning (I).

Note: PI – personal initiative (adapted from Frese et al., 1997); V – Voice (adapted from Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); TC – taking charge (adapted from Morrison & Phelps, 1999); I – innovation (adapted from Scott & Bruce, 1994).